

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Change in all spheres of life is inevitable. Major changes occurred in the recent decade within the Department of Education in South Africa. A new curriculum, *Curriculum 2005* was launched on the 24th of March 1997. The new curriculum was aimed at moving the system of education from rote memorization of content knowledge, to the one whereby knowledge is put to use and applied. It was based on the principle of Outcomes Based Education (OBE). It presented new ways of teaching, new modes of learning and assessment. The emphasis was put on skills-based education.

In 2000, a Review Committee was established to review the new curriculum. Various challenges were identified, such as the use of complex, confusing and contradictory language, as well as flawed assumption of what is happening in schools (Jansen, 1998: 323-324).

Due to these challenges, the new curriculum was revised and completed in 2002. This new curriculum was called the *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (RNCS) and later renamed, The *National Curriculum Statement* (NCS). The NCS is being implemented as a National Policy at all public schools in the following three levels of learning:

- Foundation Phase : Grades R – 3,
- Intermediate Phase : Grades 4 – 6, and
- Senior Phase : Grades 7 – 9

Whilst the majority of the people are using African languages as their home language, English is their second or even third language. The irony of the situation is that presenters of the workshops and trainers were mostly Tshivenda speaking, and yet the language used during workshops was English. On the other hand, the new curriculum was first developed in English. This posed many challenges because the language used (i.e., English) had to be translated into various African languages.

1.2 BACKGROUND

As language is dynamic, new words are continuously being added to various languages. This is the case in South Africa. This phenomenon is especially noticeable because South Africa consists of eleven official languages (South African Constitution Act No. 6(1), hence, the multicultural interaction of societies. Translation and interpretation of languages are constantly practiced as such; the role of equivalence in translation cannot be over-emphasised.

The translation of texts is a common practice at both formal and informal gatherings, in various departments, institutions, organizations and parliaments. Translation equivalence is frequently done in the Department of Education. New words are often being created when documents are translated. These new words created by translators are often problematic, because they are foreign to the target language speakers. This situation occurs because there is often a lack of equivalent terms. For instance:

- (1) SL: pamphlets (*Revised National Curriculum Statement*, 2002: 23);
is translated as
TL: *ngavhela* (*Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu*, 2002:5).

The problem of the word created above, viz., *ngavhela*, however, is problematic because new words such as these do not appear in the existing Tshivenda dictionaries. Therefore, if the created word does not make sense to the users, resistance and ignorance are likely to characterise the user's response (Gamble & Gamble, 1996:128).

In addition, translation is often done by fictitious and pseudo translators (Hung, 2005: 1-9). Hung's statement highlights the fact that target language speakers are often robbed of the equivalence they are entitled to receive.

As a result, the information in the target language is distorted, insufficient, incorrect or ambiguous. This is illustrated in the translation of the learning area statements, English (*Revised National Curriculum Statement*, 2002) and Tshivenda (*Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha kharikhulamu*, 2002) examples of this phenomenon are the following:

- (2) (a) SL : Climax and anti-climax (2002: 102).
 TL : *Lifanyisi na linanedzi* (2002: 124).
- (b) SL : Recognises and explains the success of own communication
 (2002:102).
 TL : *Vhona na u davhidzana havhudi na vhanwe vhathu* (2002: 102).
- (c) SL : Uses language to think and reason (2002: 112).
 TL : *Shumisa luambo kha u sika zwithu* (2002: 143).
- (d) SL : Identifies particular words (2002: 96).
 TL : *U sumbedza maipfi* (2002: 118).

In example (2a) the translation is incorrect. The source language should have been translated as *Mathakheni na u sa vha mathakheni*

In example (2b), the information is distorted, it should have been translated as *U elelwa na u talutshedza vhukoni hawe ha u davhidzana*.

In example (2c), the information translated is also incorrect, since it could have been translated as *U shumisa luambo kha u humbula na u shumisa ngelekanyo*.

In example (2d), the translation has omitted the word particular, and, as such the translation is ambiguous, as users will not clearly understand words they are supposed to use. It should have been translated as *U topola maipfi o teaho*.

These examples (2a-d), above confirm the fact that target language speakers are often misinformed. Erasmus (1991:23) calls this kind of translation “literal translation” and strongly discourages its use because it is the kind of translation that fails to recognize the need for making adjustments to cater for the use of symbolism and metaphor in two languages.

According to Newmark (1995:16), what matters most in translation is communicative equivalence, which entails the writer’s use of language. Bassnett (1991:3) concurs with Newmark when indicating that translation involves the transfer of meaning in a set of

language into another set of language signs through grammar. These scholars highlight the role that equivalence plays in translation.

Crystal (1987:344) regards translation as an activity in which meaning of expressions in the source language is turned into the meaning of the target language. Crystal's argument emphasises the meaning expressed in the source language. This means that the meaning in the source and the target languages should be similar. Scholars such as Bassnett and Newmark share this view when they indicate that translation has to do with turning the meaning expressed in the source language into the meaning of the target language. Munday (2001:58) also agrees with these scholars when explaining translation equivalence as languages that describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means.

Malange (2005:16) furthermore indicates that translation equivalence is a one to one relationship between the lexical items of languages which have the same meaning. In a similar vein, Venuti (2002:147) sees translation as a process of communicating the foreign text by identifying with it. The above arguments indicate that equivalence plays a major role in translation. The translator is obliged to focus on the meaning of the lexical items in the source language. Louw, (1985: 47) argues that "Meaning is not derived from a string of isolated words, but from a combination of words into phrases, clauses, sentences, and even larger units."

This quotation highlights the fact that the concepts of a message never exist in isolation. According to Crystal (1987:344), the purpose of translation is to provide semantic equivalence between the source and the target languages. Crystal's argument highlights the kind of equivalence that is expected from the translator.

In 2002, the NCS was translated into all official African languages. Unprofessional translators were presumably employed to translate the Learning Areas Statements, from English to various official languages. The translators from English to Tshivenda were confronted with multiple challenges. The translation was often incorrect, unclear and sometimes out of context. This kind of activity is clearly explained by Newmark (1988:7) who contends that translation often has its flaws, such as misleading the readers or the listeners. The meaning of every word should be clear and true.

Due to the lexical gaps that the early translators were confronted with, they were forced to create new words and phrases. In the foreword of the *Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu* (2002), users are warned about these challenges.

The translated words in Tshivenda are often ambiguous, some are incorrect and some words have been ignored, as the following examples reveal:

Tshivenda : *Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu* (2002).

English : *(Revised National Curriculum Statement, 2002)*

(3) (a) SL : *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002:cover page).

TL : *Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu* (2002:cover page).

(b) SL : Talks/short lectures (2002:58).

TL : *nyambo* (2002:68).

(c) SL : jokes, humorous anecdotes (2002:5a).

TL : *miswaswo* (2002:68).

(d) SL : Foundation phase (2002:134).

TL : *Vhuimo ha fhasi* (2002:165).

(e) SL : Thinking and reasoning (2002:46).

TL : *U humbula na u nea muhumbulo* (2002:52).

In examples (3a) above, the word “National” has not been translated. It could have been translated as *Tshitatamende tsha Kharikhulamu yo Sedzuluswaho ya lushaka*.

In examples (3b) and (3c) above, the phrases “short lectures” and “humorous anecdotes” have been omitted. These omissions may cause the distortion of the meaning from the text translated. The translated word *nyambo*, in example (3b), may cause confusion amongst the users. Users may assume that the word *nyambo* is referring to different languages. It could have been translated as *nyambedzano*. In example (3d), the words “foundation” and *fhasi* may also cause confusion. The word *fhasi* could refer to the ground, down or lower position. These explanations could cause confusion. The word *fhasi* could have been translated as

mutheo. The phrase “thinking and reasoning” in example (3e) has been incorrectly translated into the target language. The word “reasoning” and the phrase *u nea muhumbulo* are not equivalent. The translation in the TL refers to giving an opinion, which is contrary to the expression in the SL. The word reasoning should have been translated as *u shumisa thalukanyo* and the phrase could have been translated as follows:

- (4) SL : thinking and reasoning.
TL : *U humbula na u shumisa thalukanyo.*

These examples clearly prove that the new terminology created during translation is frequently problematic. Some of the words may be strange and difficult to use. The fact that these words do not appear in the existing Tshivenda – English dictionaries makes it difficult for the policy implementers to understand what they are expected to do.

For example, the clause in the Learning Outcome number two, as reflected in example (4), poses a translation challenge (*Revised National Curriculum Statement, 2002*): and (*Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu, 2002*).

- (5) SL : with support and guidance (2002: 31).
TL : *nga thuso na vhulivhisi* (2002: 33).

The word *vhulivhisi* is ambiguous because it could refer to giving direction. Though *vhulivhisi* and guidance are in the same semantic field, they are not interchangeable. The phrase should have been translated as *thikhedzo na thuso*.

These explanations are a confirmation that the role of equivalence in the creation of terminology cannot be overemphasised. As such, equivalent terms and phrases should be carefully identified to ensure the proper transfer of knowledge between language communities, as well as effective communication amongst members of the language communities involved (google:http://www.termiumlus.ge.ca/didacticletutorial/English/lesson_3/Dec/2008).

To conclude on these, there is a major role that equivalence plays in the creation of terminology and in translation as a whole. The prevalence of such translation problems thus necessitates a study of this nature.

1.3 AIM OF STUDY

The aim of this study is to find out, through literature study, how terminology should be done, and to analyse and examine the role of equivalence in the creation of terminology with specific reference to the National Curriculum Statement (Tshivenda) in Grades R-9(2002).

This aim is achieved by endeavouring to answer these research questions:

- What is equivalence?
- Is equivalence possible between two different languages?
- How can equivalence be achieved between two languages?

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In order to suggest strategies that can be used effectively in the creation of terminology, the following processes should be undertaken:

- Highlight the role of equivalence in translation and in the creation of terminology; and
- Investigate the role of the translator in ensuring communicative equivalence.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study shows that some of the words created in the translation of the RNCS do not necessarily retain equivalence in the target language. As such, the study is crucial as it devises ways and means of conveying the message in such a way that it will be understood.

The study also shows that translation must not be taken for granted as incorrect translation may lead to the misunderstanding and misinterpretation of texts.

1.6 RATIONALE

The study is necessary as it shows that the lack of equivalence between two languages has devastating consequences, such as ambiguity and incorrect interpretation of messages.

1.7 METHODOLOGY

Because information has been collected from relevant respondents, the study lends itself to a qualitative research methodology.

1.7.1 Qualitative research method

The qualitative research method is relevant for this study because it is connected with understanding social phenomenon from the participants' perspective (Schumacher & McMillan, 1993: 372-373). The qualitative research method is descriptive in the sense that words are used when the research is conducted, thus the researcher is concerned with the understanding of individuals' perceptions of the world, thereby seeking insight as opposed to statistical analysis (Bell, 1993:6). The main reason for conducting this research by using the qualitative method is that this particular study is descriptive and explanatory, and the fact that little has been written on this topic.

The study employs primary and secondary methods in the collection of data.

1.7.1.1 Primary sources

Unstructured questions were asked in the interviews to facilitate verbal discussions that elicited responses from the chosen respondents. The interviewees consisted of the following persons:

- 5 members of the Tshivenda Language Research Development Centre stationed at the University of Venda for Science and Technology.
- 5 members of the Sepedi Language Research Development Centre (LRDC) stationed at the University of Limpopo.
- 6 Tshivenda language lecturers attached to the University of Limpopo and the University of Venda for Science and Technology.
- 3 Tshivenda Curriculum Advisors attached to the Vhembe District Office.
- 20 Tshivenda language teachers randomly selected in various circuits in the Vhembe District, such as Vhuronga 1, Tshinane, Mvudi, Sambandou and Dzindi.
- 10 Court interpreters attached to the Vhembe District's magisterial courts such as Thohoyandou, Vuwani, Mutale, and Dzanani.

The interviews focused on the questions outlined in the aims of this study.

1.7.1.2 Secondary sources

Data were also collected through secondary research methods from relevant sources such as library books, theses and dissertations, the Internet, magazines, and newspapers.

1.7.2 Data Collection

According to various scholars, such as Stake (1995: 40-45) and Nherera (1999:vi), qualitative data analysis is important when one is undertaking a research study, because validity and reliability should be ensured through careful analysis and objective interpretation of the information gathered. The study therefore gives an objective description of the role of equivalence in the creation of terminology and interpret the data to come to general conclusions.

1.8 DELIMITATION

The study has concentrated on the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Tshivenda* as a home language for Grades R – 9 (2002).

1.9 LITERATURE STUDY

This section is aimed at investigating views of scholars on the role of equivalence in the creation of terminology. Holmes (1970:80) analyses two norms that are emphasised during translation. The first one being author-centred, thus putting stress on the author's originality and faithfulness to the source text. The second norm is that of demanding the translator to use informative and vocative texts, thereby aspiring to match the author in his or her achievement.

The first norm, as highlighted by Holmes, could be problematic because it is literal translation. The stress is thus on the author's originality and faithfulness. The translator will, therefore, be translating word for word. Lexical words will be individually translated, and as a result, meaning will be distorted, since some of the words can be translated out of context (Erasmus, 1993:23). The second norm is concerned with the context of meaning as contained

in the source text. The translator is thus taking translation equivalence into consideration (Bassnett, 1991:3). The second norm postulates that complete equivalence can be achieved unlike with the first norm where equivalence is compromised.

Simons (1996:43), however, argues that the translator is involved with the transfer of linguistic elements from one language to the other. He or she is seen as the intermediary between two different cultures, namely, that of the source language and the target language. As such, it is the translator's responsibility to strive for equivalence in translation (Robinson, 2002:148).

Holmes (1970:79) concurs with these scholars when highlighting the problem of shifts of meaning during translation of texts. This is a situation where adopted words change their meaning after settling in various languages. Hocket (1967:408) explains this as loaning or borrowing from foreign languages – and further defines a loan word as a new form of a word in the borrower's speech. The activity of loaning and borrowing has implications. The most common ones are ambiguity and shifts of meaning. This is reported by Fromkin and Rodman (1988:313) as occurring in three directions, namely:

- narrowing
- broadening, and
- total shift of meaning.

These stated shifts give rise to a loss of meaning intended in the source text (Crystal, 1987: 344).

Mthombeni (2005:6) also argues that borrowing has shortcomings, such as that of transliteration, because transliteration does not often provide the equivalent information provided in the source text. *The English Revised National Curriculum Statement (2002)* and *Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu (2002)* confirm these arguments as the following examples prove:

	SL	TL
(6)	(a) Comic (2002: 58)	<i>Khomiki</i> (2002: 68).
	(b) Cartoon (2002: 62)	<i>Khathuni</i> (2002: 67).
	(c) Documentaries (2002: 94)	<i>Dzidokumenthari</i> (2002: 113).
	(d) Grade (2002: 99)	<i>Gireidi</i> (2002: 81).
	(e) Multimedia (2002: 60)	<i>Mediannzhi</i> (2002: 69).

In the above example, communicative equivalence cannot be ensured. Malange (2005:17) indicates that communicative equivalence can be achieved when the source language text can be replaced by the target language without a loss or shift of meaning. In the following words, communicative equivalence can be ensured:

	SL	TL
(7)	(a) Communication (2002: 58)	<i>Nyambedzano</i> (2002: 67).
	(b) Songs (2002: 58)	<i>Dzinyimbo</i> (2002: 6).
	(c) Poems (2002: 58)	<i>Zwirendo</i> (2002: 67).

(*Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002) and the *Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu* (2002).

In these examples, there is direct equivalence in both the SL and the TL, unlike in examples (6-7) above, where there are referential gaps, or a lack of lexical items where they are expected (Gous, 1999). Malange (2005:15) refer to this lexical gap as zero equivalence and explains it as a case where the source language form does not have appropriate or direct equivalent terms in the target language. Mphahlele (2001:26) concurs with Malange when arguing that zero equivalence entails a lexical gap, thus the linguistic and referential gap or surrogate equivalence:

	SL	TL
(8)	(a) Curriculum (2002: 1)	<i>Kharikhulamu</i> (2002: 1).
	(b) Assessment (2002: 21)	<i>Asesimende</i> (2002: 27).
	(c) Internet (2002: 23)	<i>Inthanethe</i> (2002: 25).

(*Revised National Curriculum Statement*, 2002) and the (*Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu*, 2002)).

The words in examples [8a-c], are familiar to both SL and the TL speakers. The target language speakers have no direct item to express the particular meaning in SL. This explains the linguistic gap between the SL and the TL. Equivalence is, therefore, seen as impossible so that translators are compelled to provide the surrogate equivalence, to enable users to understand the translations.

Translators often create new words when confronted with a lack of translation equivalence. Crystal (1987:344) is of the opinion that: "... exact equivalence is impossible". And that ... there is no such thing as best translation". These quotations support Holmes (1970: 8) who maintains that change in meaning is inevitable as far as identifying and differentiating are concerned between the SL and the TL. This implies that translators will often find it imperative to create new words to replace foreign language terms (google'scache:of <http://www.term.umplus.gc.ca/didactieltutorial-english/lesson31/Dec/2008>).

A lack of equivalent terms is most problematic when translating into African languages. Scholars such as Trask (1994:19) and Fromkin and Rodman (1988:135-40) illustrate a wide variety of creating new words, such as compounding, blending, derivation, backformation, clipping, acronyms, and others. However, equivalence still plays a major role in the above strategies to create new terminology. The translator's main objective in the creation of terminology is highlighted by Robinson (2006:148) as verbal actions, in which striving for equivalence is the basis for deduction. This is supported by Munday (2005:16) who explains equivalence in translation as languages which share and describe the same situation by different stylistic or structural means. Malange (2005:16) concurs with Munday when postulating that there is some kind of relationship between the source language and the target language. On the other hand, Mphahlele (2001:1) argues that equivalence is a replacement of a source language text, because it occurs in a word or phrase in one language which has similar purpose or status in meaning to a translation in another language. Mthombeni's (2005:9) focus is on the quality of translation. She argues that a well translated text should cause the TL speaker and the SL speaker to react in the same way to the communicative situation. This is also Kelly's (1979:25) argument when postulating that a well-translated text will produce the appropriate, cognitive and emotional reactions in its target audience by providing the meaning that has the right impact. In the same vein, Crystal (1987:344) maintains that translation should provide semantic equivalence between the source and the target languages.

The foregoing expositions confirm the importance of equivalence when translating texts. However, little is said about equivalence in the creation of terminology – which will be the focus of this study. Munday (2001:41) outlines the use of the following types of translation equivalence:

- denotative;
- connotative;
- text-normative;
- pragmatic (dynamic); and
- formal.

Venuti (2002:147) furthermore argues that equivalence should be denotative depending on the text, connotative depending on the similarities of register, dialect and style, and pragmatic to ensure and take into consideration the receptor's linguistic needs and cultural operations, whereas formal equivalence adheres closely to the linguistic and cultural values of the foreign text.

1.10 CONCLUSION

Most scholars have written on the role of equivalence in the translation of source language into target language. The researcher thus feels that an in-depth study of the role of equivalence in the creation of terminology in Tshivenda will aid language practitioners, translators, authors and other scholars and researchers in difficult endeavours of translating.

1.11 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter One deals with the introduction, background information, aim of the study, methodology, and literature review.

Chapter Two deals with translation equivalence. This entails: translation procedures adaptation, shifts, and the terminology strategies.

Chapter Three is concerned about translation methods such as word for word, idiomatic, adaptation and communicative.

Chapter Four deals with technical translation focusing on the role of equivalence in technical-specific concepts.

Chapter Five is a conclusion and it also provides findings and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

TRANSLATION EQUIVALENCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to examine translation equivalence through literature review. Because translation equivalence is often impossible, adoptives and shifts of meaning are also analysed. Concepts that are pertinent to this study are defined. English is used as the Source Language (SL) and Tshivenda as the Target Language (TL). Hence the focus of this study is the role of equivalence in the *National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) and *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu tsha Gireidi R - 9* (2002). Most words and phrases in the examples are from the two learning areas statements.

2.2 TRANSLATION EQUIVALENCE

2.2.1 What is Translation Equivalence?

Hartman, in Mphepya (2006:24), defines translation equivalence as the correspondence between a word or a phrase in one language and its translation in another language. It represents an item in the target language that can be used to translate a specific occurrence of the source language item. This is further supported by Munday (2001:58) who argues that equivalence in translation refers to languages that describe the situation by different stylistic means. In the same vein, Malange (2005:16) indicates that equivalence in translation has to do with a relationship between words or phrases from two or more languages that share the same meaning.

On the other hand, Mphahlele (2001:1) sees translation equivalence as a replacement of a source language text. According to Kelly (1979:25), translation equivalence exists when a translated text produce appropriate, cognitive and emotional reactions that has the right impact in its target audience.

The foregoing definitions of translation equivalence indicate that equivalence plays a major role in translation.

Venuti (2002:154) is of the opinion that there are basic factors to be considered in the translation equivalence, these entail the following:

- the nature of the message;
- the purpose of the author; and
- the type of audience.

These factors play a major role in transferring meaning from one language to the other, and in ensuring equivalence.

Munday (2001:41), therefore, outlines the following types of translation equivalence:

- denotative;
- connotative;
- text-normative;
- pragmatic (dynamic); and
- formal.

2.2.2 TYPES OF TRANSLATION EQUIVALENCE

2.2.2.1 Denotative equivalence

According to Venuti (2002:147), equivalence in translation is said to be denotative because of the invariance context. Denotative is purely literal. This implies the direct meaning of the text. Hatim and Mason (1994:20) support this notion of literal meaning in their definition that explains denotation as the primary meaning of lexical item, involving its relationship to the non-linguistic entities that it represents.

The *National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) and the *Tshitatamennde tsha Kharikhulam Gireidi R – 9* (2002) illustrate this type of equivalence.

- (9) (a) SL: Home Language (2002: cover page).
TL: *Luambo lwa hayani* (2002: cover page).

- (b) SL: Foundation phase (2002:39).
 TL: *Vhuimo ha fhasi* (2002:39).

The examples (9a-b) above are a confirmation that the translator has used connotative semantic features when translating. Words have been literally translated. For instance, in example (9b), *Vhuimo ha fhasi* could give more than one meaning, or it could refer to lower position. This could be confusing, as a result this could send a wrong message to the target language speakers which is not intended in the source language text.

2.2.2.2 Connotative equivalence

Hatim and Mason (1994:20) define connotation as an additional meaning which lexical item acquire beyond its primary referential meaning. This implies the socio-cultural and personal associations of a sign. It entails the question of how language is used, including the use of symbols and figurative speaking. According to Venuti (2002:147), equivalence can be connotative depending on the similarities of register, dialect and style. Newmark (1988:124) indicates that the translator occasionally chooses between connotation and denotative semantic features of a lexical unit.

This is exemplified in the translation of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9* (2002):

- (10) (a) SL : Life long learners (2002:3).
 TL : *Vhagudi vha tshifhinga tshothe* (2002:4).
- (b) SL : Mediators of learning (2002:3).
 TL : *Vhapfumedzanyi vha u guda* (2002:4).
- (c) SL : Language shapes our identity and knowledge (2002:4).
 TL : *Luambo lu vhumbedzela vhune hashu na ndivho* (2002:5).

- (d) SL : We communicate and understand our world through language (2002:4).
 TL : *Ri dāvhidzana na u pfesesa lifhasi lashu nga luambo.* (2002:5).

In examples (10a-d) above, the texts in the SL have an additional meaning beyond their referential meaning. The challenge for translators who are not clearly conversant with the TL is that they could translate these texts literally. Examples (10-a-b) above confirm this. However, examples (10c & d) have been translated as in the SL because they also have an additional meaning beyond their referential meaning.

2.2.2.3 Textual equivalence

According to House (1997:28), textual equivalence refers to the textual aspect of meaning in translation. Finch (1999:233) concurs with House when defining textual equivalence in functional grammar as a meta-function of language that has to do with the way language is constructed. This type of equivalence is based on the usage of norms for particular text-types (Venuti, 2002:47). These definitions indicate that textual equivalence has to do with form and shape of a text, as the following reveal:

- (11) (a) SL : Assessment Standard (2002:34).
 TL : *Maimo a asesimende* (2002:32).
- (b) SL : National Curriculum (2002:1).
 TL : *Kharikhulamu ya lushaka* (2002:8).

English (*Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002)) and Tshivenda: (*Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002)).

Reflecting on examples (11a-b) above, the original meaning is only found in the source language. The nouns *asesimende*, in example (11a), and *kharikhulamu*, in example (11b), have been adopted from the source language in order to achieve translation equivalence in the target language. The translation in examples (11a-b), have also resembled the form of the text in the SL.

2.2.2.4 Dynamic equivalence

Bassnet (1988:26) and Munday (2001:42) indicate that dynamic equivalence is based on the principle of equivalent effect. Munday further explains that in dynamic equivalence the message is tailored in the receptor's linguistic needs and cultural's expectations.

According to Kelly (1979:24), dynamic equivalence is aimed at naturalness of expression, taking into consideration the adaptation of grammar in order to achieve naturalness. Kelly further indicates that dynamic equivalence is characterized by the closest naturalness to the source language text.

In the same vein, Venuti (1997:20) cites that dynamic equivalence is the complete naturalness of expression. As such, it is primarily directed towards equivalence of response rather than equivalence of form. The naturalness of dynamic equivalence is applicable to the following areas of the communication process:

It must fit:

- the receptor's language and culture as a whole;
- the context of the particular message; and
- the receptor-language audience (Venuti, 2002:163).

Holmes (1970:80) concurs with Venuti when analysing dynamic equivalence as a translation norm that is author-centred, and as a norm that puts stress on the author's originality and faithfulness to the source text. Lefevere (1992:38) agrees with Holmes' analysis when indicating that skilful translations follow the author as closely as possible by producing the effect the author produced in every instance.

On the other hand, Mthombeni (2005:9) argues that the use of dynamic equivalence often has implications such as omission of the words that carries the text. The following examples confirm Mthombeni's argument:

- (12) (a) SL : Autobiographies and biographies. (2002:93).
TL : *Nganeavhutshilo ya vhonevhane*. (2002:112).
- (b) SL : One-act and two-act plays. (2002:93).
TL : *Matambwa a luta luthihi*. (2002:112).

- (c) SL : Wide range of situations. (2002:14).
 TL : *Masia o tandavhuwaho a vhutshilo.* (2002:16).

In examples (12a-c) above, TL speakers could be able to understand the message contained in the SL text.

In examples (12a-c), the translator has omitted some information: In example (12a), the word “biographies” has been omitted and the phrase “two-act play” in example (12b) has been omitted. In example (12c), the translator has added the information that does not appear in the source text. And, as a result, this can cause confusion amongst the target language speakers. According to Mthombeni (2005:9), this can cause ambiguity, in the sense that it can be interpreted in more than one way. These examples could have been translated as follows:

- (13) (a) SL : Autobiographies and biographies.
 TL : *Divhazwakale ya vhutshilo ha muthu yo nwalwaho nga ene mune, na yo nwalwaho nga munwe muthu.*
- (b) SL : One-act and two-act plays.
 TL : *Matambwa a luta luthihi na a ntha mbili.*
- (c) SL : Wide range of situations.
 TL : *Masia o tandavhuwaho a nyimele.*

Mthombeni (2005:9) further suggests that the translation should consider aspects such as the following:

- the target audience;
- the purpose of translation; and
- the type of text during translation.

This will enable the translators to achieve the main aim of translation, that of supplying the target language speakers with the same information as that of the source language speaker (Newmark, 1988:47).

2.2.2.5 Formal equivalence

Munday (2001:41) regards formal equivalence in translation as the type of translation equivalence in which the source text has a corresponding word in the target text. That is, the message in the receptor's language matches as closely as possible the different elements in the source language. Bassnet (1988:26) concurs with Munday when arguing that the focus of the formal equivalence is in both form and content, the translator's concern is with the correspondence such as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence and concept to concept, with the aim of translating the text in a way the SL speaker would have understood it.

In the same vein, Venuti (2002:184) indicates that formal equivalence adheres closely to the linguistic and cultural values of the target language. According to Holmes (1970:80), formal equivalence is a norm that demands the translator to use informative and vocative texts in order to match the author in his or her achievement. It is concerned with the context as contained in the source text. Holmes' norm postulates that complete equivalence can often be achieved.

However, Mason and Hatim (1990:7) contend that formal equivalence is appropriate in diplomatic negotiations, thus interpreters are compelled to translate exactly what has been articulated in the SL, rather than to interpret what they judge to be equivalent effect.

According to Lefevere (1997:87), formal equivalence is the translation equivalence wherein the translator stays as closely as possible to the author's meaning, the author's words and, if possible, to the author's personal style.

This explanation exemplifies the correct translation as follows:

- (14) (a) SL : Communication (2002:58).
TL : *Nyambedzano* (2002:67).
- (b) SL : Songs (2002:58).
TL : *Dzinyimbo* (2002:67).
- (c) SL : Poems (2002:58).
TL : *Zwirendo* (2002:67).

- (d) SL : Language structure and use (2002:52).
 TL : *Tshivhumbeo tsha luambo na kushumiselwe* (2002:56).
- (e) SL : Writing.
 TL : *U nwala* (2002:50).
- (f) SL : Time allocations (2002:42).
 TL : *U avhelwa ha tshifhinga* (2002:3).
- (g) SL : Languages (2002:2).
 TL : *Dzinyambo* (2002:2).

(The Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (2002) and the Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9 (2002)).

In examples (14a-g) above, the target language speakers have been provided with the exact meaning contained in the SL. As a result, communicative equivalence has been achieved. According to Malange (2005:17), communicate equivalence can only be achieved when the source language text can be replaced by the target language text without the loss or shift of meaning. When the translation is characterized by a loss or shift of meaning, it is referred to as Zero equivalence.

2.2.2.6 Zero equivalence

2.2.2.6.1 What is Zero equivalence?

Malange (2005:15) defines Zero equivalence as a situation where the source language does not have an immediate translation. Malange's definition implies a situation wherein the translator cannot translate the word or a statement from the source language into the target language.

According to Mphahlele (2001:26), zero equivalence entails a lexical gap. This is referred to as the Linguistic gap and the Referential gap, or surrogate equivalence. Gous (1999:26) also explains Zero equivalence as a lexical gap. Thus, a lack of lexical item where it is expected.

Zero equivalence is often caused by culture-bound items. Culture-bound items as postulated by Mthombeni (2005:7) cannot be translated into the target language, as the target language may not be having items with the same referents. Malange (2005:15) support Mthombeni when indicating that Zero equivalence occurs when the translator is dealing with the scientific and culture-bound words.

The translation of the *National Curriculum Statement Grade R - 9 (2002) English-Home Language* has often been confronted with Zero equivalence.

Therefore they borrowed words from the SL. The following examples confirm this statement:

- (15) (a) SL : Newspaper and Magazine articles (2002:61).
TL : *Dziatikili dza gurannya na magazine* (2002:69).
- (b) SL : Band (2002:125).
TL : *Bennde* (2002:155).
- (c) SL : Codes (2002:129).
TL : *Dzikhoundu* (2002:159).
- (d) SL : Recording (2002:129).
TL : *Dzirekhodo* (2002:160).
- (e) SL : Assess (2002:129).
TL : *U asesa* (2002:160).
- (f) SL : Marks (2002:129).
TL : *Dzimaraga* (2002:129).
- (g) SL : Grammar (2002:120).
TL : *Girama* (2002:150).
- (h) SL : Myths (2002:93).
TL : *Mythi* (2002:112).

In examples (15a-h) above, the target languages do not have an immediate translation. Therefore, the translator has borrowed words from the SL and other languages. There is a linguistic gap between the source language and the target language (Gous, 1999:27).

2.2.2.6.2 What is a Linguistic gap?

Malange (2005:15) maintains that a linguistic gap is a situation in translation whereby one can have an idea of what is being talked about, but lack a word to express it in the target language. It is a case whereby the source language form does not have an appropriate or direct equivalent in the target language. That is, the given referent is known to both of the language groups, but the target language has no lexical item to express that particular meaning.

The English: *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R - 9* (2002) and the Tshivenda *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R - 9* (2002) confirms this:

- (16) (a) SL : Comic (2002:58).
TL : *Khomiki* (2002:68).
- (b) SL : Cartoon (2002:62).
TL : *Khathuni* (2002:67).
- (c) SL : Documentaries (2002:94).
TL : *Dzidokhumenthari* (2002:113).
- (d) SL : Grade (2002:99).
TL : *Gireidi*(2002:8).
- (e) SL : Multimedia (2002:60).
TL : *Mediannzhi* (2002:69).

Gous (1999:27) suggests that, in the case where a linguistic gap exists, a comprehensive description should be given, because the target language speakers need more information to understand the meaning of the lexical item in the source language.

For instance, a description for these examples could have been the following:

- (17) (a) SL : Comic.
TL : *Muthu ane a anetshela miswaswo kana bugu i re na nganetshelo dzi talutshedzwaho nga zwifanyiso zwi seisaho.*
- (b) SL : Cartoon.
TL : *Tshifanyiso tsho tou olwaho kana nyolo yo olaho vhathu kana zwithu zwi kha zwivhumbeo zwi seisaho.*
- (c) SL : Documentaries.
TL : *Mbekanyamushumo ya kha radio kana kha thelevishini i neaho mafhungo a zwithu zwa vhukuma zwine zwa khou itea.*
- (d) SL : Grade.
TL : *Murole wa u guda une nwana a vha e khawo tshikoloni.*
- (e) SL : Multimedia.
TL : *Zwi bveledzwa zwo tanganelaho zwi angaredzaho manwalwa, thelevishini, radio, video, gurannda na magazine.*

According to Mthombeni (2005:6), translators often solve this problem of Zero equivalence by borrowing words from the source language or other languages. And this is referred to as surrogate equivalence.

2.2.2.6.3 What is surrogate equivalence?

Surrogate equivalence refers to a case wherein there are no translation equivalence, but translators apply surrogate equivalence to serve as a substitute (Mthombeni, 2005:6). Malange (2005:15) concurs with Mthombeni's opinion when defining the surrogate equivalence as "... the provided solution ... a definition whereby translators are confronted with zero equivalence."

Malange's explanation indicates that surrogate equivalence occurs in the case where the SL and the TL show linguistic and referential gaps. The following examples confirm these facts:

- (18) (a) SL : Interview (2002:101).
 TL : *Inthaviwu* (2002:119).
- (b) SL : Technology (2002:101).
 TL : *Thekinolodzhi* (2002:119).
- (c) SL : Computer (2002:101).
 TL : *Khomphutha* (2002:121).
- (d) SL : Terms (2002:52).
 TL : *Matheme* (2002:58).
- (e) SL : Encyclopedia (2002:23).
 TL : *Insakilopedia* (2002:25).
- (f) SL : Record (2002:129).
 TL : *Rekhodo* (2002:160).
- (g) SL : File (2002:129).
 TL : *Faila* (2002:160).

2.2.2.6.4 What is referential gap?

Referential gaps occur when the referent is known to the speakers of the language, while the speakers of the TL are unfamiliar with the expression. It refers to the lack of meaning, thus the translator is not sure of the expression in the TL: This implies that a corresponding lexical item does not exist in the target language (Gous, 1997:27).

According to Gous (1997:27), the linguistic gap that could be established between languages could be bridged by giving a brief explanation of a source language form. The translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9 (2002)* were often confronted with this linguistic gap in their translation of *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha*

Kharikhulamu tsha Gireidi R – 9 (2002). Instead of giving a brief explanation or a comprehensive description, they transliterated the lexical items. The two learning area statements confirm this argument.

- (19) (a) SL : Videos, CD – ROMs and Internet (2002:23).
 TL : *dzividio, CD – Roms na inthanethe* (2002:23).
- (b) SL : Books (fiction and non-fiction) (2002:22).
 TL : *dzibugu (dza fikishini na dzi si fikishini)*(2002:22).
- (c) SL : Diaries (2002:23).
 TL : *dzidayari* (2002:23).

In examples (19a-c) above, there is lack of lexical item where they are expected (Gous 1999:27). Therefore, the translator ought to have given a brief or a comprehensive description of the lexical items in the target language, in order to provide the target language speakers with the explanation that will enable the target language speakers to understand the source language form. The following definitions could have been used:

- (20) (a) SL : Video CD – ROMs and Internet
 TL : *Muungo u re na zwifanyiso une u nga sumbedzwa kha thelevisheni, hune disiki ya dzula hone kha thelevisheni kana kha khomphutha na vhudavhidzani hu tshi shumiswa khomphutha.*
- (b) SL : Book (fiction and non-fiction).
 TL : *Dzibugu (dza nganea dza vhukuma na dzo tou hambulelwaho dzi si dza vhukuma).*
- (c) SL : Diaries.
 TL : *Bugu dzine muthu a nwala zwine zwa khou itea lenelo duvha na zwine a khou dilugisela u do zwi ita nga maduvha a daho. Bugu idzi dzi vha dzi na khalenda ya nwedzi munwe na munwe kha nwaha wonoyo.*

In examples (20a–c), above, there are no equivalent lexical items in Tshivenda. Therefore, the translation has been supplemented with a comprehensive explanation to provide the TL speakers with more information in the source text. Translators often use various translation procedures when confronted with zero equivalence.

2.3 TRANSLATION PROCEDURES

Newmark (1988:75) reports that translators are often confronted with zero equivalence, or often do not find the required equivalent in the target language. Therefore, they often apply various translation procedures to overcome this challenge. There are translation procedures such as the following:

- transference procedure,
- naturalism,
- functional equivalent,
- descriptive equivalent,
- synonyms,
- shifts,
- couplets, and
- through translations (Newmark, 1988:75 – 85).

2.4 TRANSFERENCE PROCEDURE

Transference procedure has to do with loan words transcription. It is the process whereby the source language word is transferred to a target language. Hence transference procedure (Newmark, 1988:76).

The following exemplify this statement:

- (21) (a) SL : Assessment.
 TL : *Asesimende*.
- (b) SL : Grade.
 TL : *Gireidi*.
- (c) SL : Curriculum.
 TL : *Kharikhulamu*.

- (d) SL : Statement.
TL : *Tshitatamennde*.
- (e) SL : Profile.
TL : *Phurofaili*.
- (f) SL : Portfolio.
TL : *Photofolio*.

Morphologically, these examples are according to the particular language. There is a transfer of loan words:

- *Assessment* to *assesimennde*
- *Grade* to *gireidi*
- *Curriculum* to *kharikhulamu* in Tshivenda. The TL word, *asesimennde*, has been loaned from the English word *assessment*. The words *grade* and *curriculum* have been morphologically transferred to the target language as indicated in the above examples.

2.5 NATURALISM

According to Newmark (1988:77), Naturalism is a process of anglicising foreign names. The first step in this process is the pronunciation followed by morphology as follows:

- (22) (a) SL : Grade (2002:22).
TL : *Gireidi*(2002:24).
- (b) SL : Internet (2002:22).
TL : *Inthanete* (2002:25).
- (c) SL : Fiction (2002:23).
TL : *Fikishini* (2002:25).
- (d) SL : Maps (2002:23).
TL : *Mimapa* (2002:251).

(Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9 (2002) and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9* (2002).

The first emphasis on the above example is on pronunciation, which, in principle, is the same as in the SL, and then the word form that is according to the morphological structure of the TL. This procedure naturalises the SL and makes it pronounce the same like the TL (Newmark, 1988:77).

2.6 FUNCTIONAL EQUIVALENCE

Functional equivalence procedure deculturalises a cultural word. This procedure is often used by translators when the TL has no equivalent word (Newmark, 1988:82). Translators often create new terms based on the function of the word in the SL text, as in the following examples:

- (23) (a) SL : Aeroplane.
 TL : *Bufho*.
- (b) SL : Airport.
 TL : *Vhukavhamabufho*.
- (c) SL : Harbour.
 TL : *Vhuimazwikepe*.

The SL words have been deculturalised. They have been created based on the functionality of the word in the SL. Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R -9* (2002) and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireid R – 9* (2002) have also used this procedure. This is exemplified in the following:

- (24) (a) SL : Pamphlet (2002:23).
 TL : *Ngavhela* (2002:25).
- (b) SL : Punctuation (2002:51).
 TL : *Ndongazwiga* (2002:59).
- (c) SL : Dictionaries (2002:58).
 TL : *Thalusamaipfi* (2002:67).

- (d) SL : Textbook (2002:58).
 TL : *Bugupfarwa* (2002:68).
- (e) SL : Co-ordinate sentences (2002:51).
 TL : *Fhungopfananya* (2002:24).
- (f) SL : Rhymes (2002:22).
 TL : *Pfanapheleledzo* (2002:24).

2.7 DESCRIPTIVE EQUIVALENCE

The emphasis is on the meaning of the source text (Newmark, 1988:85):

- (25) (a) SL : Reference books (2002:21).
 TL : *Bugu dzine wa sedza zwinwe sa bugu ya thalusa maipfi* (2002:24).
- (b) SL : Books (fiction and non-fiction) (2002:22).
 TL : *Dzibugu (dzi ambaho nga vhungoho na dza miswaswo* (2002:24).
- (c) SL : Participates confidently and fluently in a group (2002:15).
 TL : *Shela mulenzhe hune ha vha na vhudifhinduleli na nyelelo yavhudi ya u amba zwigwadani.*

The examples in the TL above give a description of the phrase in the SL.

2.8 SYNONYMYS

Fromkin and Rodman (1988:518) define synonyms as different words with same meaning. Translators often look for the synonyms of the same source language. On the other hand, Bassnet (1988:29) argue that, equivalence in translation should not be approached as a search for sameness because sameness cannot exist between two languages, that is, the SL and the TL, let alone between two TL versions. This is supported by Louw (1985:34) who contends

that there could never be complete correspondence between two languages, and further indicates that there are no genuine synonyms between languages nor complete synonyms within any one language.

2.9 SHIFTS

This is also called transposition. It involves the following four procedures:

- Change in grammar;
- Change in grammatical structure;
- Literal translation; and
- Replacement of lexical gap by grammatical structure.

From the foregoing explanations, the transposition is the only procedure wherein the grammatical structure of the language is emphasized.

2.10 COUPLETS

Couplets refer to the procedure wherein more than one procedure is used in the translation. When two procedures are used in translation, it is referred to as couplets and when more than two procedures have been used, it is referred to as translation triplets (Newmark, 1988:91).

2.11 THROUGH TRANSLATION

According to Newmark (1988:76), this procedure makes use of loan words when translating. Translation in this procedure is generally literal. Newmark further defines this procedure as a loan translation. This is exemplified in the following adaptations:

- Phonological adaptation;
- Morphological adaptation;
- Syntactic adaptation; and
- Semantic adaptation.

2.11.1 Phonological Adaptation

Bloemfield (1984:451) is of the opinion that Phonological adaptation is an adaptation wherein a word is changed to suite the phonetics of one's language. Thus, the form of a borrowed word is subject to the phonetic changes that occur after its adaptation. The following examples confirm this explanation:

- (26) (a) SL : Economy (2002:2).
TL : *Ikonomi* (2002:2).
- (b) SL : Culture (2002:5).
TL : *Khalitsha* (2002:6).
- (c) SL : Politics (2002:5).
TL : *Politiki* (2002:6).
- (d) SL : Cards (2002:23).
TL : *Garata*(2002:24).

In examples (26a-d) above, sounds have been adapted to suite phonetics of the target language. For instance, the word *ikonomi* has been adopted from the English word *economy*. The [k] sound in the word *ikonomi* is an ejective sound, whereas the [c] is an aspirated sound.

2.11.2 Morphological Adaptation

Morphological Adaptation is the adaptation wherein sounds are put together (Bloemfield, 1984:452) as illustrated in the following examples:

- (27) (a) SL : Statement (2002: Cover page).
TL : *Tshitatamennde* (2002: Cover page).
- (b) SL : Curriculum (2002: np).
TL : *Kharikhulamu* (2002: np).

- (c) SL : Assessment (2002:46).
 TL : *Asesimenne* (2002:156).
- (d) SL : Democracy (2002:1).
 TL : *Demokirasi* (2002:52).
- (e) SL : Profile (2002:131).
 TL : *Phurofaily* (2002:162).

The words *tshitamennde*, *kharikhulamu*, *asesimenne*, *demokirasi* and *phurofaily*, in SL have sounds that do not appear in the donor language. New sounds have been put together to suite the morphological structure of the TL.

For instance, the prefix in *tshitamennde*, viz., *tshi* – does not appear in the donor language, that is, in the word statement.

2.11.3 Syntactic Adaptation

This is the adaptation wherein words are arranged to make a sentence. Bloemfield (1984:453) cites that: Grammatically borrowed form is subject to the system of the borrowing.

- (28) (a) SL : Economic Management Sciences (2002:2).
 TL : *Saintsi dza Ikonomi na ndangulo* (2002:2).
- (b) SL : A balanced approach to Literacy Development
 (2002:11).
 TL : *Ndila yo vhekanywaho zwavhudi kha Mvelaphanda ya Litheresi* (2002:11).
- (c) SL : Assessment standard.
 TL : *Maimo a asesimenne*.
- (d) SL : Learning outcome.
 TL : *Maga a u guda*.

- (e) SL : Language structure and use (2002:52).
 TL : *Tshivhumbeo tsha luambo na kushumiselwe* (2002:58).

The words in the host language are arranged differently to those in the donor language.

2.11.4 Semantic Adaptation

According to Poulos (1990:79), lexical adaptation is concerned with the meaning in a word or in a sentence. Semantic adaptation is, therefore, illustrated in occupants that coincide with the introduction of the Western way of life.

- (29) (a) SL : Book.
 TL : *Bugu*.
- (b) SL : Magazines (2002).
 TL : *Magazini* (2002:113).
- (c) SL : Speeches (2002:59).
 TL : *Zwipitshi* (2002:68).
- (d) SL : Journals (2002:59).
 TL : *Dzidzhenala* (2002:68).
- (d) SL : Posters (2002:60).
 TL : *Dziphositara* (2002:68).

The adopted words above have the same meaning as in the host language. Various adaptations of words in the host language sometimes change their meanings after settling in the borrower's language. There is often a possibility of shift of meaning.

2.12 SHIFTS OF MEANING IN TRANSLATION

Shifts of meaning in translation are explained by Fromkin and Rodman (1988:313) as a situation whereby some adopted words change their meaning after settling in their various

languages. Fromkin and Rodman further indicate that these shifts occur in the following three directions:

- Narrowing;
- Broadening; and
- Total shift of meaning.

2.12.1 NARROWING

Narrowing implies that the original meaning in the donor language, as cited by Trask (1994:72), is found to be broad, and it has been narrowed in the host language. Fromkin and Rodman (1988:511), cite that it is a semantic change in which the meaning of a word changes in time to become less extensive. According to Trask (1994:77), narrowing of meaning means that the meaning of a word becomes less general in the host language than in the donor language.

- (30) SL : Folklore (2002:93).
TL : *dzingano* (2002:112).

In the donor language, the word *folklore* is general. The *South African Oxford English Dictionary* (2005:179) defines it as beliefs and legends. This entails traditional songs and praise poems. However, the word *dzingano* is specific; it refers to folktales only. Hence it has been narrowed.

2.12.2 BROADENING

Broadening is defined by Fromkin and Rodman (1988:501) as a situation wherein the meaning that was narrowed in the donor language is found broadened or widened in the host language:

- (31) (a) SL : Short plays (2002:61).
TL : *Mitambo* (2002:24).
- (b) SL : Bar graph (2002:22).
TL : *Dzigirafu* (2002:24).

- (c) SL : Short stories (2002:61).
 TL : *Nganetshelo* (2002:69).

The word *mitambo*, in example (31a), refers to various games in the host language, whereas in the donor language the word *short plays* is specific, as such, it has been narrowed. The word *bar graph*, in the donor language, has also been narrowed, whereas in the host language the translation has been broadened because the word *dzigirafu* is general – it refers to any other graph and not specifically to a *bar graph* as in the SL. So is the word *nganetshelo*, it has been broadened because it refers to any kind of narration.

These examples could have been translated as follows:

- (32) (a) SL : Short plays.
 TL : *Matambwa mapfufhi.*
- (b) SL : Bar graph.
 TL : *Dzigirafu dzi olwaho nga ndila ya u tou tengula tshivhumbeo tsha thofundembili, i tshi tengulwa i tshi gonya kana i tshi tsa. Izwi zwi nga itwa hu tshi khou sumbedzwa kushumele kwa vhana ku tshi vhambedzwa na kwa minwe minwaha. Ku nga gonya kana kwa tsa kana kwa lingana na kwa nwaha wo fhiraho.*
- (c) SL : Short stories.
 TL : *nganea pfufhi.*

2.12.3 TOTAL SHIFT

Fromkin and Rodman (1988:511) define total shift in translation as meaning shifts. The following examples in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* and the *Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu* (2002), confirm the above definition:

- (33) (a) SL : choral chants (2002:59).
 TL : *U tavha mikosi ya khorala* (2002:65).

- (b) SL : Radio shows (2002:59).
 TL : *Matano a radio* (2002:65).
- (c) SL : Phonic awareness (2002:59).
 TL : *Tshemzhembo ya mubvumo* (2002:69).

The translation in these examples brings a total shift in meaning. The phrase *choral chants* refer to calling out words in a rhythmic manner whereas the translation in TL could be referring to making any kind of noise. Therefore, the translation brings out a total shift of meaning. The phrase *Radio shows* is translated as *matano a radio*.

This could be confusing to the TL as *matano* refers to something exhibited, whereas a radio show could have been translated as *mbekanyamushumo ya kha radio, i mvumvusaho vhatsheshesi*: These examples could have been translated to:

- (34) (a) SL : Choral Chants.
 TL : *U imba hu tshi khou dovhoololwa maipfi a fanaho lunzhi.*
- (b) SL : Radio shows.
 TL : *Mbekanyamushumo dza radio dzi mvumvusaho vhatsheshesi.*
- (c) SL : Phonic awareness.
 TL : *U vha na ndivho ya mubvumo.*

From the above illustrations, it is clear that translators of *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R- 9* (2002) have been in a struggle of equivalent words and phrases. In most cases, the translation was narrowed, broadened or ended up in a total shift of meaning. Because of these shifts, they often came up with various strategies to overcome these problems.

2.13 TERMINOLOGY STRATEGIES

Languages are not equal in terms of corresponding meanings. This implies that there is no complete equivalence between code units (Mthombeni, 2005:6). This is also supported by

Lefevere (1992:1) who cites that languages seem not to have been created equally because some languages enjoy a more prestigious status than others. Lefevere further indicates that no language is rich enough to match another in all stylistic traits and figure of speech. This applies even to the most primitive language in all things. However, Erasmus (1999:322) argues that there is no such thing called primitive language, because all languages are of equal complexity and, as such, they are equally well adapted to the communicative purpose they serve in the society in which they operate. However, Erasmus agrees with Lefevere's notion that some languages, with the virtue of their role, are flexible and versatile than most languages.

Because languages are not equal, therefore, translators often create new words in order to bridge the linguistic gap that exists between languages. Crystal (1987:344) is of the opinion that "... exact equivalence is impossible and that ... there is no such thing as best translation." Holmes (1970:80) concurs with Crystal when maintaining that change in meaning is inevitable as far as identifying and differentiating between the SL and the TL are concerned. This implies that translators will often find it imperative to create new words to replace foreign language terms (google's cache: of <http://www.umplus.gc.ca/didactiel/tutorial-english/lesson.31/12/2008>). Lack of translation equivalence is most problematic when translating into African languages. Scholars such as Trask (1994:19); and Fromkin and Rodman (1988:135-140) illustrate a wide variety of strategies of creating new words, such as the following:

- compounding;
- blending;
- derivation;
- back-formation;
- clipping; and
- acronyms.

2.13.1 COMPOUNDING

Fromkin and Rodman (1988:501) define compounding as a way of creating new words by combining two words, as the following examples illustrate.

- (35) (a) *Bugupfarwa* (2002:25) > *bugu-* + *-fara*.
 (b) *Thalusamaipfi* (2005:49) > *talusa-* + *ipfi*.
 (c) *Tsumbamafhungo* (2002:43) > *sumba-* + *mafhungo*.

(*Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) and *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9* (2002)).

2.13.2 BLENDING

According to Fromkin and Rodman (1988:501), blends are words composed of the parts of more than one word. These are words composed of more than one word, or are fused to make one word (Finch, 1998:226). In the same vein, Trask (1994:21) indicates that blending is another type of word formation wherein an initial and terminal segments of two words are joined together to create a new word as in the word *brunch*. This word has been created from the initial morpheme of the word *breakfast* and the terminal morpheme of the word *lunch* to form the word *brunch*. Hudson (2000:245) agrees with Trask's opinion when arguing that blending has to do with replacing two words of a phrase with parts of both by fusing the first part of the first word with the last part of the other, as in the following example:

- (36) (a) *Motor* + *hotel* > *motel*.
 (b) *Chunnel* + *tunnel* > *Chunnel*.
 (c) *Smoke* + *fog* > *smog*.

This strategy is related to compounding. Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9* (2002) have often used compounding as in the following words:

- (37) (a) SL : Punctuation (2002:51).
 TL : *Ndongazwiga* (2002:49): *longa* + *zwiga* > *ndongazwiga*.
 (b) SL : Legends (2002:49).
 TL : *Mafhungolungano* (2002:68): *mafhungo* + *lungano* > *Mafhungolungano*.

- (c) SL : Cordinate sentence (2002:51).
 TL: *Fhungopfanya* (2002:68) : *fhungo + pfana > fhungopfananya*
- (d) SL: Dictionary (2002:49).
 TL: *Thalusamaipfi* (2002:68) : *talusa + maipfi > thalusamaipfi.*

This is exemplified by the following nouns when a suffix – *al* is added:

- (38) (a) *culture + - al > cultural.*
 (b) *season + - al > seasonal.*
 (c) *origin + - al > original.*
 (d) *education+ - al > educational* (Fromkin & Rodman, 1988:501).

2.13.3 DERIVATION

This is the process wherein morphemes are added to stem morphemes; something that may change the syntactic category or meaning of the word. (Fromkin & Rodman, 1988:504). According to Trask (1994:19), prefixes and suffixes may be combined in deriving new words. This is exemplified in the following words:

- (39) (a) SL : Guidance (2002:31).
 TL : *Vhulivhisi* (2002:33).
- (b) SL : Understands (2002:36).
 TL : *Mutalukanyo* (2002:40).
- (c) SL : Guidelines (2002:2).
 TL : *Nyendedzi* (2002:3).
- (d) SL : Antonyms (2002:51).
 TL : *Mahanedzani* (2002:57).

These examples above have changed their syntactic category because of the prefixes that have been added.

2.13.4 BACK-FORMATION

Hudson (2000:263) argues that backformation occurs in a language due to wrong cutting of words when communicating. This refers to a new word created by means of removing what is mistakenly considered to be an affix (Fromkin & Rodman, 1988:501). Trask (1994:21) also defines back-formation as the removal, from a word, of something that is apparently an affix. This is exemplified in the following:

- (40) (a) editor > edit.
(b) peddler > peddle.
(c) babysitter > babysit (Hudson, 2000:263).

The wrong cutting of a word results in a new meaning of the word.

2.13.5 CLIPPING

According to Hudson (2000:24), clipping is shortening the spoken form of a word. Trask (1994:21) indicates that clipping is a process in which a word is created by extracting an arbitrary portion of a longer word of identical meaning. The example of such strategy is in the following words:

- (41) (a) reffridgerator > fridge
(b) public house > pub
(c) fanatic > fan
(d) petite > pet (Trask, 1994:21).

A new word is formed by shortening an existing one (Finch, 1988:226).

2.13.6 ACRONYMS

Fromkin and Rodman (1988:499) indicate that an acronym is a word of the initials of several words.

In the same vein, Hudson (2000:242) argues that acronyming is a sort of clipping wherein a phrase is replaced by a word based upon the first letters of its words. Hudson further identifies three types of acronyms:

- Word acronyms;
- Spelling acronyms; and
- two-level word acronyms.

2.13.6.1 Word acronyms

Word acronyms are pronounced as ordinary words and not as spelling. The following examples confirm this explanation.

- (42) (a) RAM > random access memory.
 (b) UNICEF > United Nations International Emergency Fund.
 (c) SASA > South African Schools Act (Hudson, 2000:243).

2.13.6.2 Spelling acronyms and two-level word acronyms

These acronyms are read and pronounced spelling as sequence of letters as in the following examples:

- (43) (a) PR > ‘Public Relations.’
 (b) TLC > ‘Tender Loving Care.’
 (c) ID > ‘Identification.’ (Hudson, 2000:243).

These are acronyms that express meaning on two levels. Thus, as an acronym, it is a simple word. This exemplified in the following acronyms:

- (44) (a) NOW > ‘National Organisation of Women.’
 (b) SPECTRE > ‘Special Executive for counter intelligence,
 terrorism, Revenge and Extortion.’
 (Hudson, 2000:244)

However, equivalence still plays a major role in these strategies of creating terminology. The translator’s main objective in the creation of terminology, as highlighted by Robinson (2006:148), is verbal action in which translators strive for equivalence. This is further argued by Mthombeni (2005:9) whose focus is on the quality of translations, as she maintains that a well-translated text should cause the TL to react in the same way to the communicative

situation. Kelly (1979:25) concurs with Mthombeni when postulating that a well-translated text will produce the appropriate, cognitive and emotional reactions in its target audience by providing the meaning that has the right impact.

In the same vein, Crystal (1987:344) maintains that translation should provide semantic equivalence between the source and the target language.

Hatim and Mason (1997:215) are also of this opinion when they indicate that a well translated text depends on the co-operation of the translator, thus the translator should adhere to the cooperative principles of communication. This is defined by Fromkin and Rodman (1988:255) as a principle that states that a speaker's message should be informative, in the sense that it should contribute to the discourse the required information only, that is, not more or less.

Finegan (1994:339) agrees with these scholars when citing that speakers should make their conversations such as is required by the accepted purpose, because translators are described by Gerver and Sinaiko (1997:165) as intermediaries between the SL and the TL.

Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grade R-9* (2002) have also used this strategy of acronyms. However, they often adopted the acronym as it is from the SL to the TL as indicated in the following examples:

- (45) (a) PANSALB > Pan South African Language Board (2002:5).
- (b) SAFCERT (2002:5).
- (c) TV (2002:9).
- (d) HIV/AIDS (2002:10),

(*Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9* (2002)).

2.14 CONCLUSION

Translation equivalence is a major task in translating texts from one language to the other. Translators often use various strategies in order to bridge linguistic gaps between the SL and the TL. The most common strategy used is borrowing from other languages, especially from English. When this strategy seems to be problematic, they create new words. However, new words also do not often produce appropriate reactions expected from their target audiences.

Hence, English words have been used in the creation of some new terminology, and some English words have been adopted rather than translated. The literature reveals that the translator is obliged to produce the information that is truthful, informative and that is in context. The meaning in translation should always be close to the original one and free from ambiguity and shifts. On the other hand, the literature also reveals that languages cannot match each other in terms of meaning. Above all, various scholars indicate that complete equivalence between languages is impossible.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS OF TRANSLATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to discuss translation methods and analyse how they have been used in the translation of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) to the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9* (2002) as the target language.

3.1.1 What is translation?

Collins South African School Dictionary (2002:903) defines the term translation as saying or writing what someone has said in a different language, thus target language. On the other hand, the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* (2005:482) explains translation as putting something into another language. It involves the transfer of messages from source language to the target language. Therefore, it is imperative that the information in the source language text should be the same or equivalent to the information in the target language.

In the same vein, Karamanian, in Mbatha (2005:21), indicates that translation involves:

The transposition of thoughts expressed in one language by one social group into appropriate expression of another group, entails a process of cultural decoding, recording and encoding.

Mbatha's analysis of Karamanian's argument is that the whole process of transcoding should be focused on cultural transposition, in the sense that translators are obliged to be both bilingual and bicultural.

3.1.2 What is a method?

A method is a way of doing things. *Collins South African School Dictionary* (2005:531) defines a method as a particular way of doing something. The *South African Oxford School Dictionary* (2005:282), on the other hand, defines a method as a procedure or a way of doing something.

From the above definitions of what translation and methods are, one can conclude that translation method is a way or procedure of saying or writing a text from the source language to the target language.

3.2 METHODS OF TRANSLATION

Newmark (1995:46) identifies several translation methods. For the purpose of this study, the following methods of translation will be dealt with:

- Word-for-word;
- Idiomatic;
- Adaptation; and
- Communicative.

3.2.1 Word-for-word

Word-for-word translation method is concerned with translating each and every word in a text. It preserves the word order in the source text, and does not take into account the grammatical rules of the target language. Cultural words are also translated literally. As a result, the translation is often done out of context (Mbatha, 2005:23).

According to Newmark (1995:45), Word-for-word translation is an interlinear way of translating wherein the TL is immediately below the SL words. Newmark further agrees with Mbatha on the notion that words in these methods are often translated literally.

In the same vein, Dimitrova (2005:53) also defines Word-for-word translation method as a literal translation that preserves the formal features of the source text (ST), while conforming to the target language grammar. Dimitrova further indicates that translation in these methods: "... is made on a level lower than is sufficient to convey the content unchanged while observing SL norms." As a result, Word-for-word translation leads to bad translation of texts, in the sense that the source text structure is reflected in an exaggerated and unwanted way.

In the previous chapter, it was indicated that the purpose of translating a text is communicative equivalence. However, the fore-going exposition about word-for-word translation indicates that it is often done literally and that words are sometimes translated out of context. These definitions confirm that messages could also be distorted. And, as a result, the target language speakers could end up making no sense of the text, and that the aim of translation would also not be achieved. This is exemplified in the following:

- (46) (a) SL : Uses language creatively (2002:85).
 TL : *U shumisa luambo lu fhataho* (2002:102).
- (b) SL : Develops awareness and use of style (2002:121).
 TL : *U bveledza ndivho na kushumisele kwa tshitaela* (200:150).
- (c) SL : Works with words (2002:20).
 TL : *U shuma na maipfi* (2002:22).
- (d) SL : Works with sentences (2002:20).
 TL : *U shuma na mafhungo* (2002:22).
- (e) SL : Works with texts (2002:20).
 TL : *U shuma na manwalwa* (2002:22).
- (f) SL : Uses language to investigate and explore (2002:83).
 TL : *U shumisa luambo u todisisa na u tandula* (2002:101).

(Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R–9 and the Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R – 9 (2002)).

In example (46a), the meaning in the TL text is not exactly equivalent to the meaning in the SL text. This is because the word *creatively* in the SL has been translated out of context. The phrase *lu fhataho* does not refer to *being creative*, as indicated in the SL. Although the phrase *lu fhataho* and the word *creatively* could at some point share the same semantic field, they are not interchangeable. Therefore, if the phrase does not make sense to the target language speakers, communicative equivalence will not be achieved. The phrase in example (46a) could have been translated as follows:

- (47) SL : Uses language creatively.
 TL : *U shumisa luambo nga ndila ya vhutsila.*

Example (47) above, have also been translated out of context. This has been caused by preserving the word order in the SL. The other things are that words have been individually translated. That is, the TL word is immediately below the SL word, as illustrated below:

- (49) (a) SL : Develops awareness and use of style.
 TL : *Bveledzisa ndivho na kushumiselwe kwa tshitaela.*
- (b) SL : Works with words.
 TL : *Shuma na maipfi.*
- (c) SL : Works with sentences.
 TL : *Shuma na mafhungo.*
- (d) SL : Works with texts.
 TL : *Shuma na mafhungo*

The illustrations in examples (49a-d) above confirm the fact that the word order in the SL has been preserved, and that words have been individually translated. Furthermore some words have been translated out of context. Mbatha (2005:23) refers to this kind of practice as translating words according to their most common meanings. The result is that the meaning of the text in the SL becomes distorted.

Example (49a) could have been translated as:

- (50) SL : Develops awareness and use of style.
 TL : *Bveledzisa ndivho na kushumiselwe kwa tshitaela.*

The word *of* could have been translated as *kwa*, as indicated in the above example. This would have made sense, and communicative equivalence would have been achieved between the SL and the TL.

In examples (49a-d), the translation has also been done out of context. The TL text is ambiguous, that is, it has several meanings. For instance, the TL text in example (50b) could be interpreted as:

- to use words;
- to work with words;
- to work together with words; or
- working along side with words.

The noun “words” in the SL in example (49b) is indicated as an object or an instrument that enables the activity to take place. However, the noun *maipfi* (words) has been indicated as an agent that is equally responsible for the activity that is taking place. The preposition *of* has been translated as *na* (and) instead of *nga* (with) in this context. These phrases in examples (549a-c) could have been translated as follows:

- (51) (a) SL : Works with words.
 TL : *U shuma nga maipfi.*
- (b) SL : Works with sentences.
 TL : *U shuma nga mafhungo.*
- (c) SL : Works with texts.
 TL : *U shuma nga manwalwa.*

In examples (51a-c), communicative equivalence could be achieved. Target language speakers will not be confused like in examples (50a-d).

Translators are sometimes ignorant of the grammatical structure of the TL speakers. Sometimes, they just disregard the structural rule of the TL grammar. The following exemplifies this explanation.

- (52) (a) SL : Asks questions for clarity and information (2002:29).
 TL : *U vhudzisa mbudziso u itela u pfesesa na mafhungo* (2002:31).

- (b) SL : Simple word problems (2002:21).
 TL : *Mbalo dzi sa kondi* (2002:23).

Examples (53a-b) above have been translated out of context in the sense that the translators did not make adjustment of the meaning of words between the SL and the TL. These examples could have been translated as follows:

- (52) (a) SL : Asks questions for clarity and information.
 TL : *U vhudzisa mbudziso u itela thalutshedzo dzi pfalaho na u itela ndivho ya mafhungo.*
- (b) SL : Simple word problems.
 TL : *Thaidzo dza maipfi a sa kondi.*

These examples have been supplemented with explanations to make adjustments of the meaning of words in the TL. In this way, the TL speakers will be able to understand the message, and as such, communicative equivalence will be achieved.

Because words are often translated individually in this method, translators often treat or use some words as though they are interchangeable. This is exemplified in examples (52a-b) in this section, wherein the words *sentences* and *information* have been translated as *mafhungo* in the TL. This could be confusing to the target language speakers. They could think that the two words are synonymous. These two words, viz., *sentences* and *information*, are not even related in their meanings. The word *information*, in example (52b) could have been translated as *ndivho ya mafhungo*.

Translators have often translated figurative expressions word for word. As a result, the text was translated literally and the information contained in the SL was distorted. This is illustrated below:

- (53) (a) SL : it builds literacy (2002:4).
 TL : *vhu fhata litheresi* (2003:5).

- (b) SL : Places assessment standards at the heart of the assessment process (2002:125).
- TL : *Vhea maimo a asesimenne kha mbilu ya maitete a asesimenne* (2002:155).

The two examples in (53a-b) above are figurative expressions. Translators have translated them literally as though they were simple sentences with literal or direct meaning.

Example (53a) has been personified, and in example (53b), a symbolic expression has been used. The symbol that has been used is the *heart*. The expression could also be said to have been personified because the assessment standard is being given an image of something that is a plus animate whereas it is not. The translation on the other hand has been done literally. As a result, this could be problematic to the TL speakers, in the sense that they could interpret the expression literally as it has been presented in the TL, whereas the meaning goes beyond the literal expression. More challenge could be encountered in example (53b) wherein the word *heart* has been used as a symbol, emphasising the focus of the assessment process. These phrases could have been translated as follows:

- (54) SL : Places assessment process at the heart of the assessment process.
- TL : *Vhea maimo a asesimenne tshivhindini tsha maitete a asesimenne*.

The word *tshivhindini* is also a symbol that symbolises the focus of the assessment process. The phrase has an emphasis that is denoted by the symbolic connotation of the word *tshivhindini*. It carries the semantic expression which is denoted in the SL text. Although the words *mbilu* and *tshivhindini* share the same semantic fields, the word *tshivhindini* is more vocative than the word *mbilu* in this context.

These expositions and explanations confirm that the use of this method cannot always guarantee communicative equivalence between the SL and the TL. Scholars such as Lefevre (1992:4) and Erasmus (1999:327) strongly condemn the use of this method because the translation is often done out of context and, as a result, ambiguous and senseless texts can be translated.

Although the use of this method is condemned by these scholars, some translators often make use of this method because it is easy to use. The translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) have also used this method, and sometimes out of context; as indicated in examples (53a-b).

However, there are instance wherein they used this method in context, as indicated in the following examples:

- (55) (a) SL : Thinking and reasoning (2002:82).
 TL : *U humbula na u nea muhumbulo* (2002:100).
- (b) SL : Uses language to investigate and explore (2002:83).
 TL : *U shumisa luambo u todisisa na u tandula* (2002:101).
- (c) SL : Through language, learners should be informed about ...
 (2002:101).
 TL : *Nga luambo vhagudi vha tea u divhadzwa nga ha ...*
 (2002:120).

Examples (55a-c) above indicate that translating words individually could also provide the TL speakers with the same meaning expressed in the SL, without distorting the information. This could be possible if words are carefully selected. For instance, the following examples have words that correspond with the TL and still produce the same meaning after translation:

- (58) (a) SL : Thinking and reasoning.
 TL : *U humbula na u nea muhumbulo.*
- (b) SL : Uses language to investigate and explore.
 TL : *U shumisa luambo u todisisa na u tandula.*
- (c) SL : Through language learners should be informed about
 TL : *Nga luambo vhagudi vha tea u divhadzwa nga ha*

The TL expression makes sense because some words have been replaced by phrases to make the TL speakers get the exact meaning expressed in the SL. However, the frequent use of this method results in the distortion of information and the shift of meaning or senseless expressions in the TL.

3.2.2 Idiomatic method

Newmark (1995:47) indicates that Idiomatic Translation method produces the message of the original while distorting the natural meaning by preferring colloquial words and the use of idioms where the two do not exist in the original. Mbatha (2005:26) contends that Idiomatic Translation embraces aspects such as idioms, proverbs and figures of speech. Mbatha further indicates the aim of using idiomatic method as being the avoidance of vulgar words.

Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Grades R – 9 (2002)* to the *Tshitatamennde tsha Kharikhulamu yo Sedzuluswaho Gireidi R – 9 (2002)*, have also used the Idiomatic translation method, they used figures of speech in their translation. Sometimes, they translated these idiomatic expressions literally. And, as a result, the meaning in the TL became different to the expression in the SL. This is illustrated in the following example:

- (59) (a) SL : Life long learners (2002:3).
 TL : *Vhagudi vha tshifhinga tshothe* (2002:4).
- (b) SL : Mediators of learning (2002:3).
 TL : *Vhaphumedzanyi vha u guda* (2002:4).
- (c) TL : ... envisions teachers ... (2002:3).
 SL : ... *u lavhelela vhadededzi* ... (2002:4).

These examples provide the translation that does not give the TL speakers the equivalent meaning expressed in the SL text. For instance, in example (59a), the SL text has a figurative connotation, while the TL text has a literal meaning which is different to the SL text, thus denotative connotation. The phrase *Vhagudi vha tshifhinga tshothe* could refer to: Full time students and this is not the implied meaning of the text in the SL. The phrase could have been translated as follows:

- (60) SL : Life long leaning.
 TL : *Vhagudi vha tshothe.*

The translation above could provide the TL speakers with the meaning of the text in the SL text than the one given in example (59a) wherein some TL speakers will be confused because the expression in the TL is ambiguous.

In example (59b), the SL phrase is a metaphor, and a metaphor refers to non-literal meaning of a clause. It has an abstract meaning. However the TL phrase has been translated literally. As a result, the intended message in the SL text has been distorted. The phrase could have been translated as follows:

- (61) SL : Mediators of learning.
 TL : *Vho-nendila vha u guda.*

In example (59c), the word *envisions* in the SL text has symbolic connotation, unlike *u lavhelela* in the TL. It is a simple phrase that has been literally translated. Although the phrase *u lavhelela* is related to the meaning in the SL text, it lacks the emphasis contained in the SL text. The word *envisions* in the SL text is related to a *visionary*. Therefore, one could say the expression is idiomatic although the translation has provided a simple explanation of an envisaged teacher. The TL text would have been equivalent if the SL text was as follows:

- (62) SL : National Curriculum Statement expects teachers who
 TL : *Tshitatamennde tsha Kharikhulamu tshi na bono la vhadededzi
 vhane vha ..*

The word *bono*, in this example, has an idiomatic expression that is equivalent to the word *envisions* in the TL, and it also embraces the emphasis which is in the TL text.

The translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9 (2002)* to the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Giredi R – 9 (2002)* have sometimes succeeded in finding equivalent idiomatic expressions in the TL. As a result, the TL speakers were provided with the exact meaning of an idiom expression in the SL. This is exemplified in the following:

- (63) (a) SL : We communicate and understand our world through language (2002:3).
 TL : *Ri davhidzana na u pfesesa lifhasi lashu nga luambo* (2002:4).
- (b) SL : Educators are key contributors (2002:4).
 TL : *Vhadededzi ndi vhasheli vha mulenzhe vhahulwane* (2002:5).
- (c) SL : Language shapes our identity and knowledge (2002:4).
 TL : *Luambo lu vhumbedzela vhune hashu na ndivho* (2002:5).

These idiomatic expressions, in these examples in the SL texts, have been provided with equivalent expressions in the TL. Examples (63a-c) above are imageries, the expressions have been personified, and thus something that is inhuman is described as if it has human qualities in both the SL and the TL texts.

In example (63a), the *world* has been personified in the SL, so is the word *lifhasi* in the TL. These words have been personified as though they have human qualities. In example (63c), the words *language* and *luambo* have also been personified as if they have the qualities of shaping a person's identity, as it has been indicated in the SL text.

The expressions in the SL and in the TL are equivalent. Although the idiom in the SL has been translated with another idiom, the TL speakers are still provided with the exact meaning contained in the SL text.

In example (63b), the word *key* is idiomatic; it has been used as a metaphor. The translation *Vhasheli vha mulenzhe vhahulwane* is also metaphoric. The translation has also been supplemented with an explanation, thus an adjective *vhahulwane*, to enable the TL speakers to understand the idiom in the SL text.

These idiomatic expressions are often difficult to translate. Hence the translation is sometimes not accurate and often difficult to understand (Mbatha, 2005:26). However, if used correctly as in example (63a-c) above, it could be very useful to senior citizens as they are the ones who are used to this type of expressions.

3.2.3 Adaptation method

This is the method where the translator is most free. This is supported by Newmark (1995:46) who contends that Adaptation method allows the translator to be freer because it is listener and reader centred. Words in the SL are transliterated in order to correspond to spelling conventions in the adoptive language (google.http://www. macmillandictionary.com/ med.3march2008).

According to Mbatha (2005:25), Adaptation method is the freest form of translation suitable for plays, poetry characters and plots.

The translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) to *Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu* (2002) often borrowed words from the source text. Sometimes, the borrowed words were retained, as indicated in the following examples:

- (64) (a) SL : Assessment (2002:3).
TL : *Asesimende* (2002:3).
- (b) SL : Curriculum (2002:1).
TL : *Kharikhulamu* (2002:1).
- (c) SL : Statement (2002:1).
TL : *Tshitatamende* (2002:1).
- (d) SL : Grade (2002:1).
TL : *Gireidi* (2002:1).
- (e) SL : Profile (2002:131).
TL : *Phurofaily* (2002:162).

- (f) SL : Portfolios (2002:131).
 TL : *Photofolio* (2002:162).
- (g) SL : Reports (2002:131).
 TL : *Dziripoto* (2002:162).

In examples (64a-g), borrowed words have been transliterated. As a result, the TL speakers might still find it difficult to understand the words if they are not familiar with the concepts in the source language. Therefore, the translators ought to have tried to explain the concepts as follows:

- (65) (a) SL : Assessment.
 TL : *U linga magudele.*
- (b) SL : Curriculum.
 TL : *Mutheo wa pfunzo.*
- (c) SL : Statement.
 TL : *Mutheo wo pfunzo wo nekedzwaho.*
- (d) SL : Grade.
 TL : *Murole.*
- (e) SL : Profile.
 TL : *Thalutshedzo nga ha zwidombedzwa zwa nwana zwi kwamaho vhutshilo na vhudifari hawe.*
- (f) SL : Portfolios.
 TL : *Mishumo yo nanguludzwaho ya nwana.*
- (g) SL : Reports.
 TL : *Muvhigo wa kushumele kwa nwana kha ngudo dzawe.*

These explanations done in examples (65a-g) could enable the TL speakers to understand the concepts. Thus, communicative equivalence could be achieved between the SL and the TL texts.

In some instances, borrowed words were neutralized in order to correspond to spelling conventions in the adoptive language as illustrated in the following examples:

- (66) (a) SL : Xitsonga (2002:4).
TL : *Tshitsonga* (2002:5).
- (b) SL : Siswati (2002:4).
TL : *Tshiswati* (2002:5).
- (c) SL : Sepedi (2002:4).
TL : *Tshibeli* (2002:5).
- (d) SL : Setswana (2002:4).
TL : *Tshitswana* (2002:5).
- (e) SL : isiNdebele (2002:4).
TL : *Tshindevhele* (2002:5).
- (f) SL : isiXhosa (2002:4).
TL : *Tshithoza* (2002:5).
- (g) SL : isiZulu (2002:4).
TL : *Tshizulu* (2002:5).

In the examples (66a-g), translators have neutralised proper names by adding a prefix *Tshi-*. This is to correspond the names to spelling conventions in the adoptive language. Therefore, the TL speakers will be familiar with the names and as a result communicative equivalence will be achieved.

Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grade R-9* (2002) often made use of functional terms when they were confronted with zero equivalence. They formed new words or concepts that were based on their functionality. This is illustrated in the following examples:

- | | | | | | |
|------|-----|----|---|-----------------------|------------|
| (67) | (a) | SL | : | Pamphlets | (2002:23). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Ngavhela</i> | (2002:25). |
| | (b) | SL | : | Expressions | (2002:2a). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Vhudinyanyuli</i> | (2002:31). |
| | (c) | SL | : | Drafts | (2002:41). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Mvetomveto</i> | (2002:45). |
| | (d) | SL | : | Publishes | (2002:43). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Kandisa</i> | (2002:47). |
| | (e) | SL | : | Punctuation | (2002:43). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Ndongazwiga</i> | (2002:47). |
| | (f) | SL | : | Antonyms | (2002:51). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Mahanedzani</i> | (2002:57). |
| | (g) | SL | : | Co-ordinate sentence | (2002:51). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Fhungopfananya</i> | (2002:51). |
| | (h) | SL | : | Fluency | (2002:55). |
| | | TL | : | <i>Vhueleli</i> | (2002:63). |

These examples in (67 a- h) have been based on the functionality of the words in the SL and then a new word was formed. However, the new words are not commonly used. Target language speakers need to make analysis of these concepts for them to be able to understand. The big challenge that could be faced by TL speakers is that these words do not appear in the existing Tshivenda – English Dictionaries. Therefore, communicative equivalence cannot

always be guaranteed. Translators could have provided an explanation of the new words formed, so that TL speakers could be able to understand the concepts as illustrated below:

- (68) (a) SL : Pamphlets.
 TL : *Ngavhela (Lubugu lusekene lu re na mafhungo a talutshedzaho tshinwe tshithu kana zwithu).*
- (b) SL : Expressions.
 TL : *Vhudinyanyuli (U sumbedza vhudipfi kana muhumbulo wa muthu nga kha u amba).*
- (c) SL : Drafts.
 TL : *Mvetomveto (Ndugiselo ya u thoma ya u veta-veta linwalo kana maambiwa).*
- (d) SL : Publishes.
 TL : *Kandisa (U andadza mushumo wo nwalwaho).*
- (e) SL : Punctuation.
 TL : *Ndongazwiga (Zwiga zwo nwalwaho zwi thusaho muvhali u pfesesa zwine a khou vhala zwone, sa tshithoma (.), khoma (,) , garukelo(!) na tshivhudzisi (?).)*
- (f) SL : Antonyms.
 TL : *Mahanedzani (Khanedza).*
- (g) SL : Co-ordinate sentence.
 TL : *Fhungopfananya (U shumisa litanganyi kana u tanganya mafhungo zwao a ita fhungo lithihi).*
- (h) SL : Fluency.
 TL : *Vhueleli (U vhala hu si na u kakamela kana u tou bula ipfi nga lithihi kana u vhala muthu a tshi tou elela).*

The explanation in the TL concepts will enable the TL speaker to understand the concepts and to familiarise the users of the new concepts formed because they would be provided with the meaning of the concepts. Thus, communicative equivalence will therefore be achieved.

Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grade R – 9 (2002)* have also retained names when using the Adaptation Translation method. This is exemplified in the following:

- (69) (a) SL : Republic of South Africa (2002:1).
TL : *Riphabuliki ya Afurika Tshipembe (2002:1)*.
- (b) SL : Curriculum 2005 (2002:134).
TL : *Kharikhulamu 2005 (2002:165)*.
- (c) SL : Edlab cards (2002:131).
TL : *Garata dza Edlab (2002:162)*.
- (d) SL : *Government Gazette* No. 23406, Vol. 443 ... (2002:1)
TL : *Gazete ya Muvhuso* No. 23406, Vol. 443 ... (2002:1)
- (e) SL : Pan South African Language Board (2002:5).
TL : *Pan South African Language Board (2002:4)*.

In examples (69a-e) above, proper names have been retained. The above explanations confirm that Adaptation method allows translators to be more free. They may retain or preserve names in the SL. This has often been the norm of translators in translating the *Revised National Curriculum Statement*. Hence, SL concepts were often preserved and retained.

3.2.4 Communicative method

Newmark (1995:63) indicates that Communicative Translation method produces an effect as close as possible on its hearers to that obtained on the readers of the source language. Newmark also indicates that Communicative Translation communicates messages well, in the sense that it attempts to give the exact meaning of the source text. The advantage of using this

method, as postulated by Mbatha (2005:26), is that it takes positive respects such as the reader, and culture.

Mbatha's explanation indicates that Communicative Translation method fulfils the purpose of translation, because it produces an accurate translation as in the following examples:

- (70) (a) SL : Simple description (2002:13).
TL : *Thalutshedzo dzi sa kondi* (2002:15).
- (b) SL : Introduction (2002:9).
TL : *Marangaphanda* (2002:11).
- (c) SL : Revises own writing (2002:43).
TL : *Dovholola zwe a nwala* (2002:47).
- (d) SL : Instruction of growing complexity (2002:23).
TL : *Nyaluwo ya ndaela dza u konda*.
- (e) SL : Constitution (2002:1).
TL : *Ndayotewa* (2002:1).
- (f) SL : Listening (2002:24).
TL : *U thetshesesa* (2002:26).
- (g) SL : Listens attentively (2002:25).
TL : *U thetshesesa nga vhuronwane* (2002:27).
- (h) SL : Reading and viewing (2002:33).
TL : *U vhalala na u sedzulusa* (2002:36).
- (i) SL : Demonstrate appropriate listening behaviour (2002:33).
TL : *U sumbedza vhudifari ho teaho ha u thetshesesa*.
(2002:27)

- (j) SL : Work with words (2002:51).
 TL : *U shuma nga maipfi* (2002:57).
- (k) SL : Key elements (2002:126).
 TL : *Zwitenwa zwone-zwone* (2002:156).
- (l) SL : Characteristics of continuous assessment (2002:127).
 TL : *Zwitaluli zwa asesimennde ya tshifhinga tshothe*
 (2002:157).
- (m) SL : Learner's names (2002:129).
 TL : *Madzina a mugudi* (2002:160).

In examples (70a-m) above, the translation is accurate. The expression in the SL and the TL texts give the same meaning. The TL speakers have been provided with the meaning contained in the source text.

Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) have often made use of informative and vocative texts. This is exemplified below:

- (71) (a) SL : the heritage they carry (2002:5).
 TL : *ifa line vha vha nalo* (2002:7).
- (b) SL : Listens attentively to questions (2002:14).
 TL : *U thetshesela nga vhuronwane musi hu tshi vhudziswa*
 (2002:17).
- (c) SL : Participates confidently and fluently (2002:15).
 TL : *U shela mulenzhe hune ha vha na vhudifhinduleli* (2002:17).

Examples (71a-c) above are vocative in the sense that some have been translated figuratively and some are more informative to enable the TL speakers to understand the expressions in the SL. In example (71a), the word heritage has been translated as *ifa* which is so informative and vocative than a simple word other than the one provided in the TL.

In example (71b), the word *vhuronwane* in the TL is more vocative because it has the emphasis within it. The word *vhuronwane* is related to several qualities such as: orderly, accurately, appropriately and properly. This is more vocative than the expression in the SL. The SL has been expressed by simple words with literal connotations.

In example (71c), the phrase *u shela mulenzhe* is more informative because it is idiomatic. It has a connotation of participating actively and showing a feeling of what is taking place, rather than being an observer or a passive participant. Although the words attentively in the SL and *vhuronwane* in the TL share the same semantic field, the word *vhuronwane* has emphasis than the word in the SL.

Mbatha (2005:26) indicates the above explanation as an advantage of using this method, because it elaborates and gives explanations in the TL.

Communicative translation has often been used in the linguistic level of the target language speakers. Newmark (1988:34) refers this to a smooth, clear, more direct and more conventional translation. This is exemplified in the following:

- (72) (a) SL : Languages are central to our lives (2002:5).
 TL : *Luambo ndi zwithu zwihulwane vhutshiloni hashu* (2002:5).
- (b) SL : Continuous assessment is the chief method (2002:127).
 TL : *Asesimennde ya tshifhinga tshothe ndi ngona yone yone* (2002:127).
- (c) SL : Takes place over a period of time and its ongoing (2002:127).
 TL : *I itea murahu ha tshifhinga tshilapfu nahone i itea tshifhinga tshothe* (2002:157).
- (d) SL : Schools attended and record of attendance (2002:131).
 TL : *Zwikolo zwe a dzhena khazwo na kudzhenele kwawe kwa tshikolo* (2002:162).

Examples (72a-d) above have been translated in a smooth clear and more direct way. The SL text in example (72a) contains the word *central* which has been used figuratively. However, the translation in the TL text has given a more direct explanation that has simplified the symbolic expression in the SL, and still provided the TL speakers with the meaning contained in the SL text.

The SL text in example (72c) is a metaphor, and non-literal. The translation in the TL text is also more direct and has given the explanation of the metaphor in the SL text. Thus, the word *chief* makes the phrase to be metaphoric, and it has been translated as *ngona yone-yone*, which is most understandable by the TL speakers because it is clear and to the point.

Example (72d) has been phrased in a complicated way in the SL text. However, the phrase in the TL has been simplified and has been supplemented with an explanation to enable the TL speakers to understand the text in the SL. The phrase ... *nahone tshifhinga tshothe* simplifies the word *on-going* in the SL text.

Examples (72a-c) also have been translated in a smooth and in a conventional way. Words that have been used in the TL text are common and widely used and accepted by the TL speakers. Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002) sometimes omitted some information contained in the source language text while trying to use the Communicative Translation method.

As a result, the information in the SL text became distorted and communicative equivalence could not be achieved. This is illustrated in the following examples:

- (73) (a) SL : Participation and achievements in extra-curricular activities (2002:131).
TL : *U shela mulenzhe kha zwa mitambo* (2002:162).
- (b) SL : Areas needing additional support (2002:131).
TL : *Masia a todaho thuso* (2002:162).
- (c) SL : Name of the school and school stamp (2002:130).
TL : *Dzina la tshikolo na tshitemmbe* (2002:162).

- (d) SL : A selection of shorter texts such as magazines, newspapers, advertisements, posters (2002:93).
 TL : *Gurannnda, khungedzelo, dzipositara* (2002:112).

In example (73a) above, translators omitted the word *achievement*. As a result, this makes the TL text to be different from the SL text. The TL speakers are provided with insufficient information. The text in the TL could have been translated as follows:

- (74) SL : Participation and achievements in extra-curricular activities.
 TL : *U shela mulenzhe na mvelelo dzawe dza zwa mitambo ya tshikolo.*

The above information in the TL translates what is contained in the SL text. Therefore, the TL speakers could have been provided with the information that is contained in the SL text.

In example (73b), the word *additional* has been omitted. The TL text also does not exactly translate the text as it appears in the SL.

This is because of the omitted word. As a result, the text in the TL implies the general areas that need support, and not to the *additional support* as it appears in the SL text. The text could have been translated as follows:

- (75) SL : Areas needing additional support.
 TL : *Manwe masia a todaho thuso.*

In the above example, the word *manwe* in the TL text, translates the word *additional*. In this way the SL text could be completely translated into the TL. The TL speakers will be able to do what is expected of them, because they will be able to understand the text as it appears in the SL.

In example (73c), translators have omitted the word “school” in the phrase – school stamp. The word *stamp* in the TL text could refer to any stamp, like a *postage stamp, community stamp, circuit office stamp, district office stamp* or the *provincial office stamp*. Therefore, the TL speakers will be forced to guess; they could guess correctly or incorrectly. One could say

this translation is ambiguous because it could refer to several kinds of stamps. The text could have been translated as follows:

- (76) SL : Name of the school and school stamp.
TL : *Dzina la tshikolo na tshitemmbe tsha tshikolo.*

The TL text above has specified the type of stamp that is contained in the SL text. The text in the translation is clear and does not confuse the TL speakers as in example (73c).

In example (73d), the first phrase, which is “a selection of shorter texts”, has been omitted. The translators have only translated the given examples only. As such, this could have no meaning to the TL speakers. The translation is confusing and does not make sense. The text in the TL could make the TL speakers ask several questions such as the following:

- What are we to do with these magazines, newspapers, advertisement, posters?
- Are we to collect them?
- Do we have to write these?

As a result, the TL speakers could end up with the wrong conclusions. The omission of the first phrase has been a mistake by the translators because it is the phrase that is carrying the message contained in the SL text. The text could have been translated as:

- (77) SL : A selection of shorter texts such as magazines, newspapers, posters.
TL : *U nanguludzwa ha manwalwa mapfufhi, sa magazine, gurannnda, khungedzelo, dzipositara.*

In this way, the TL speakers will be able to understand the text and know what is expected of them, unlike in example (73d) above, where communicative equivalence is problematic.

3.3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, four translation methods were analysed, as against the translation of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9* (2002). The first part of this chapter defined what translation is and then concentrated on the translation methods. Word-for-word

translation method was dealt with and it was found out that words were literally translated. In the Idiomatic Translation method, idiomatic phrases were sometimes translated literally and, as a result, there was a distortion of information. In the Adaptation method, translators were most free; as a result, they omitted some relevant information in the text. Communicative Translation method was dealt with and it was found out that it was well applied, however, in some instances, translators still omitted some information. As a result, the translation is often confusing and ambiguous.

CHAPTER FOUR

TECHNICAL TRANSLATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to examine the technical terms pertaining to the educational field and to analyse a variety of technical styles in the translation of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2000) and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002).

4.2 WHAT IS TECHNICAL TRANSLATION

The dictionary defines the term “technical” as a process involving a specialized field of activity (*Collins South African School Dictionary*, 2002:871). In the same vein, Newmark (1005:151) argues that technical translation is a specialised translation. It involves new terminology pertaining to a particular study or profession. This includes institutional translation, commerce, finance, and government. Hence, it is distinguished from other forms of translation by terminology used.

Newmark (1995:153) distinguishes four varieties of technical language as follows:

- Scientific;
- Workshop level;
- Everyday usage level; and
- Public or sales.

4.3 LEVELS OF TECHNICAL TRANSLATION

The following levels will be discussed and analysed:

- Academic;
- Professional; and
- Popular or laymen.

4.3.1 Academic level

A dictionary defines the term “academic” as the work done in a school, college or university (*Collins South African School Dictionary*, 2002:5). However, Newmark (1995:153) defines “academic style” as words associated with academic papers. This entails, including Latin or Greek in one’s work, as illustrated below:

(78) ‘*Phleymacia alba dolens*’ (Newmark, 1995:153).

4.3.2 Professional level

Collins South African School Dictionary (2002:659) defines the word “professional” as a type of job that requires advanced education or training. In the same vein, Newmark (1995:153) regards “professional” style as formal terms used by experts. For instance, professionals would prefer the term “*sodium chloride*” instead of the term “*salt*” in the field of science.

4.3.3 Popular or layman

A layman is described as someone who does not have a specialised knowledge of a subject (*Collins South African School Dictionary*, 2002:483). The term “popular”, on the other hand, is defined as something that is liked or approved by many people (*Collins South African School Dictionary*, 2002:641).

According to Newmark (1995:153), layman style is the vocabulary that includes familiar alternative terms. The objective of this section in this work is to examine popular or layman’s vocabulary, and to establish whether or not this kind of vocabulary can be translated from one language to the other: in this regard, from English as the source language to Tshivenda as the target language.

4.4 TECHNICAL AND DESCRIPTIVE TRANSLATION

The literature in Chapter Two of this work indicates that there could never be a complete correspondence between two languages nor genuine synonyms between languages or in one language. Newmark (1995:152) is of this opinion when pointing out that the central difficulty in technical translation is usually the new terminology. The difficulty lies with

finding an equivalent term in the TL. The problem is sometimes caused by the fact that some technical terms are context free. Newmark further indicates that, sometimes, translators use technical terms when translating because the appropriate technical term does not exist in the TL, as exemplified in the following words:

- (78) (a) SL: Terms (2002:52).
 TL: *Matheme* (2002:58).
- (b) SL: Encyclopedia (2002:59).
 TL: *Ensikilopedia* (2002:67).
- (c) SL: Projects (2002:114).
 TL: *Dziphurodzhekiti* (2002:146).
- (d) SL: Schedule (2002:130).
 TL: *Shedulu* (2002:162).
- (e) SL: Thesaurus (2002:118).
 TL: *Theasauresi* (2002:147).
- (f) SL: Tone (2002:64).
 TL: *Thoni* (2002:74).
- (g) SL: Wordbank (2002:43).
 TL: *Bannga ya maipfi* (2002:4a).
- (h) SL: Grammar (2002:45).
 TL: *Girama* (2002:51).
- (i) SL: Charts (2002:49).
 TL: *Dzitshati* (2002:55).

These examples are problematic for a translator because they have no translation equivalents in the target language. Therefore, the translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002) have translated a technical term with another technical term.

Thus the translators have transliterated these technical terms. As such, some TL speakers will have the challenge of not being able to understand the text because of the fact that the term could as well be new to the TL audience. As a result, the intended message for the TL speakers will often not be translated because of lack of an equivalent term in the TL.

In the same vein, Mthombeni (2005:15) strongly argues that the transliteration strategy is problematic in the sense that the target language audience may not completely understand what is being conveyed if they are not familiar with the source language concepts.

However, according to Newmark (1995:153), translators often have the problem of making a distinction between technical and descriptive terms, because of the following reasons:

- the object is new and does not yet have a name in the particular language;
- the descriptive term is used as a familiar alternative in order to avoid repetition; and
- the descriptive term could be used to make a contrast with another one.

(Newmark, 1995:53).

The above-mentioned reasons confirm a similar situation with the translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu – Gireidi R-9* (2002), who struggled in getting equivalent terms to translate the terms in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002), hence the creation of new terminology and the descriptive translation of the technical terms.

Newmark (1995:153) highlighted the fact that it is more problematic for translators to translate a technical term if an object is strange to the SL. However, the translator is said to be justified to translate a descriptive term by a technical term.

Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statements Grades R-9* (2002) were often confronted with the challenge of translating a descriptive term with a technical term. They created new terms as exemplified below:

- (79) (a) SL: Basic skills (2002:108).
 TL: *Vhukonibale* (2002:34).
- (b) SL: Flexibility (2002:101).
 TL: *Vhutepe* (2002:23).
- (c) SL: Consistency (2002:108).
 TL: *Nzio* (2002:158).
- (d) SL: Abbreviations (2002:119).
 TL: *Mupfufhahadzo* (2002:147).
- (e) SL: Punctuation (2002:121).
 TL: *Ndongazwiga* (2002:148).
- (f) SL: Framework (2002:125).
 TL: *Muhanga* (2002:155).
- (g) SL: Guidelines (2002:2).
 TL: *Nyendedzi* (2002:3).
- (h) SL: Mind maps (2002:23)
 TL: *Nyolo dza muhumbulo* (2002:25).

Descriptive terms in these examples have been used to translate the text in the SL. Terms in the SL text are new and have no equivalents in the TL. Thus, there is zero equivalence between the SL and the TL. As a result, the translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) used these descriptive terms to provide the TL speakers with the message contained in the SL text. The creation of some of these terms was based on the functionality of the terms in the SL.

Besides these strategies of providing communicative equivalence for TL speakers, it is a fact, as indicated by the literature, that communicative equivalence cannot always be guaranteed in TL speakers with regard to these new terms. As indicated in Chapter Two of this work, the

new terminologies created are often problematic. However, the TL speakers may be able to understand these words if they were created based on their functionality as in terms of the following:

- (80) (a) SL: flexibility (2002:101).
TL: *vhutepe* (2002:23).
- (b) SL: framework (2002:125).
TL: *muhanga* (2002:155).
- (c) SL: punctuation (2002:121).
TL: *ndongazwiga* (2002:148).
- (d) SL: guideline (2002:2).
TL: *nyendedzi* (2002:3).

The created terms in the TL text are based on their functionality in the SL. However, each word depends on the competency of the one who is analyzing it. That is, the translator should be conversant with the language used in the SL text.

However, for words in examples (79a, c, & h), communicative equivalence could be impossible given that these words are strange and, the worst part of it, they do not appear in the existing *Tshivenda-English Dictionaries*. Phrases such as the one in (81(c)), have been literally translated. As such, the meaning undergoes a shift. This has been elaborated in Chapter Three of this work. It has been indicated that the use of this method should be avoided because it leads to bad translation.

Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002) could have used popular terminology in translating some of these technical terms so as to make sure that the TL speakers are provided with the message or the information contained in the SL text. This is exemplified in the following:

- (81) (a) SL: Assessment.
TL: *Mulingo*.

- (b) SL: Learning area.
TL: *Thero*.
- (c) SL: Learning outcome.
TL: *Ndivho ya ngudo*.
- (d) SL: Foundation phase.
TL: *Mirole ya u thoma*.
- (e) SL: Literacy.
TL: *Luambo*.
- (f) SL: Numeracy.
TL: *Mbalo*.

According to Newmark (1995:153), this is explained as translating technical terms by using their counterparts. In this regard, communicative equivalence can be guaranteed.

The above texts in the SL are technical terms used only in the field of education. Their counterparts in the source text are exemplified below:

- (82) (a) Assessment
↓
Examination
- (b) Learning area
↓
Subject
- (c) Learning outcomes
↓
Goals

(d) Progression



Promotion

(e) Foundation



Junior classes

(f) Literacy



Languages

(g) Numeracy



Numbers.

These examples, pointed with arrows, are not only meant for education, but other fields of study also make use of them. They are more popular and easy to understand than the ones in examples (82a-f). Laymen could struggle to understand their meaning even if they were source language speakers than if their counterparts above were to be used.

4.5 ANALYSIS OF TECHNICAL TRANSLATION

The above explanations confirm that the style used in the translation of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002) is the professional style. Most of the terms used are educational related. Some are new in the field of education. Therefore, the purpose of this study, as highlighted in Chapter One of this work, is to examine the role of equivalence between the SL and the TL. As such, the role of equivalence is also examined in these technical terms.

Equivalence played a vital role in the translation of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002). Translators often used popular explanations in translating these technical terms in the SL. This is exemplified by the following texts:

- (83) (a) SL: Learning outcome (2002:20).
TL: *Mvelele ya u guda* (2002:21).
- (b) SL: Simple information texts (2002:21).
TL: *Bugu dza u sedza mafhungo* (2002:23).
- (c) SL: Outcomes (2002:1).
TL: *Mvelelo* (2002:1).
- (d) SL: Narratives (2002:22).
TL: *U anetshela* (2002:24).
- (e) SL: Learner-centred (2002:1).
TL: *I vhea mugudi vhukati* (2002:1).
- (f) SL: General Education and Training Band (2002:1).
TL: *Bennde ya pfunzo na vhugudisi nyangaredzi* (2002:1).
- (g) SL: Critical outcomes (2002:1).
TL: *Mvelelo dza ndeme* (2002:1).
- (h) SL: Assessment glossary (2002:n.p).
TL: *Mutevhe wa maipfi a sia la u guda* (2002:n.p).
- (i) SL: Developmental outcomes (2002:1).
TL: *Mvelelo dza mveledzi* (2002:2).
- (j) SL: Arts and Culture (2002:2).
TL: *Vhutsila na Mvelele* (2002:2).

The level of the language used in these examples is of a popular style meant to provide TL speakers with the communicative equivalence contained in the SL text.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluwaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) often transliterated these technical terms, as in the following examples:

- (84) (a) SL: Assessment (2002:126).
TL: *Asesimennde* (2002:156).
- (b) SL: Literacy (2002:135).
TL: *Litheresi* (2002:166).
- (c) SL: Learner profile (2002:135).
TL: *Phurofaili ya mugudi* (2002:166).
- (d) SL: Formative assessment (2002:126).
TL: *Asesimennde ya fomathivi* (2002:156).
- (e) SL: Profile (2002:131).
TL: *Phurofaili* (2002:162).
- (f) SL: Curriculum (2002:5).
TL: *Kharikhulamu* (2002:7).
- (g) SL: Mathematics (2002:2).
TL: *Metse* (2002:2).
- (h) SL: Science (2002:2).
TL: *Saintsi* (2002:2).
- (i) SL: Technology (2002:2).
TL: *Thekholodzhi* (2002:2).
- (j) SL: Statement (2002:2).
TL: *Tshitamennde* (2002:2).

In these examples, one could conclude that translators of the *Tshitamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) tried to make these technical terms sound familiar by adapting those words into the morphological rules of the target language. However, complete equivalence cannot be guaranteed for all TL speakers. Some TL

speakers will be able to understand the terms by virtue of being users of this particular document, and such are mostly professionals who understand English.

In Chapter Three of this work, it has been indicated that literal translation is problematic. Therefore, translators are encouraged to avoid transliteration of texts. Roets (in Mbatha, 2005:67) indicates that, if translators are confronted with a lack of target language item, they are obliged to give a brief explanation of the term in the SL equivalence.

Therefore, the translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002) could have translated those technical terms as follows:

- (85) (a) SL: Assessment.
TL: *Ndingo ya magudele a mugudi.*
- (b) SL: Literacy.
TL: *U kona u vhala na nwala luambo.*
- (c) SL: Formative assessment.
TL: *Mulingo u thusaho na u vhea ito kha maitete a u guda na u gudisa.*
- (d) SL: Learner profile.
TL: *Rekhodo ya zwidodombedzwa zwothe zwi kwamaho mugudi ene mune.*
- (e) SL: Continuous assessment.
TL: *Mulingo wa tshifhinga tshothe.*
- (f) SL: Curriculum.
TL: *Masia a u guda a angaredzaho thero nnzhi.*

In these examples, the source language speakers could have been provided with a descriptive term for the technical term in the SL. Translators of the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002) to the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu*

Gireidi R-9 (2002) did sometimes give a brief explanation of some technical terms in their translation. This is exemplified in the following:

- (86) (a) SL: Numeracy (2002:3).
TL: *Mballo* (2002:3).
- (b) SL: Learning outcome (2002:18).
TL: *Mvele ya u guda* (2002:22).
- (c) SL: Learning programme (2002:135).
TL: *Mbekanyamushumo ya u guda* (2002:166).
- (d) SL: Progression (2002:135).
TL: *Mvelaphanda* (2002:166).
- (e) SL: Life skills (2002:3).
TL: *Vhutsila ha vhutshilo* (2002:3).

The technical terms in these examples have been translated with a descriptive term. The style of language used is professional. These terms are only used in the field of education. For instance, in example (86a) above, the term numeracy is a technical term and as such, unfamiliar term in other fields. Other professions have their own specific terms to define this term.

4.6 TECHNICAL-SPECIFIC CONCEPTS

Professional style in technical translation encompasses several aspects in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002) and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002). Aspects that will receive attention below are the following:

- Assessment;
- Learning areas;
- Learning outcomes;
- Assessment standards;

- Recommended texts; and
- Phases.

4.6.1 Assessment

Collins South African School Dictionary (2002:49) defines assessment as considering something carefully and making a judgement about it. The main objective of this chapter is to examine technical terms, and it is therefore imperative to establish whether or not the term assessment and all items related to it, such as types of assessment, are technical terms. And also, to analyse the style that has been used.

The term “assessment” is a technical term because in education, especially in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002), it encompasses aspects such as tests, assignments, examinations, researches, presentations and observations. In this regard, the term is only used for education related matters. In other fields of study, the term literally refers to estimating the value or quality of a person or thing (*South African Oxford School Dictionary*, 2004:26).

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) have translated the term assessment with another technical term and have also used a professional style, as in the following examples:

- (87) (a) SL: Assessment (2002:126).
 TL: *Asesimennde* (2002:156).
- (b) SL: Baseline assessment (2002:126).
 TL: *Asesimennde ya mutheo* (2002:156).
- (c) SL: Formative assessment (2002:126).
 TL: *Asesimennde ya fomathivi* (2002:156).
- (d) SL: Summative assessment (2002:126).
 TL: *Asesimennde ya sumathivi* (2002:156).

- (e) SL: Systemic assessment (2002:126).
TL: *Asesimenne ya sisitemiki* (2002:156).
- (f) SL: Continuous assessment (2002:127).
TL: *Asesimenne ya tshifhinga tshothe* (2002:157).

These examples are technical terms. They are meant for the education profession. Hence the style is professional. However, the translation has a challenge for target language speakers because they may not exactly understand the information in the TL texts, especially with the phrases (87c-e), in the sense that each word in the phrase is a technical term. And, the other thing is that words have been borrowed from the TL, and unless the target language speaker is conversant with the English language, communicative equivalence might be impossible.

Instead of translating a technical term with another technical term, translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) ought to have given a brief explanation of the text in the SL because there is lack of equivalent terms in the TL to translate the information into the SL. Translators could have translated the phrases as follows:

- (88) (a) SL: Baseline assessment.
TL: *Ndingo ya mutheo.*
- (b) SL: Diagnostic assessment.
TL: *Ndingo ya tzedzuluso.*
- (c) SL: Formative assessment.
TL: *Ndingo i langaho na u thusa kha mafunzele na magudele a mugudiswa na mudededzi, na u sumbedza mugudiswa na mudededzi mvelaphanda ine ya vha hone kha mugudiswa.*
- (d) SL: Summative assessment.
TL: *Ndingo-gute i katelaho mvelaphanda ya magudele a mugudiswa.*

- (e) SL: Systemic assessment.
 TL: *Ndingo i langaho mashumele a muhasho wa pfunzo.*
- (f) SL: Continuous assessment.
 TL: *Ndingo ya tshifhinga tshothe.*

These examples in (88a-f) have provided the TL speakers with a brief explanation of the text in the SL. Even though the TL words cannot match the words in the SL text, the TL speakers will be able to understand the technical term in the SL text because a brief explanation of the phrase would have been provided as a translation of the SL text.

4.6.2 Learning areas

The *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002:135) defines learning areas as the eight fields of knowledge in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (Schools). The phrase “learning areas” is a technical term used in the field of education, mostly used by professionals. In other fields of study, a “learning area” could refer to a particular location. *Collins South African School Dictionary* defines the term “area” as a particular part of a place, country or the world (2002:43). The term “learning” is defined by the *South African Oxford School Dictionary* as the term used to refer to getting knowledge or skill (2004:257). Therefore, one can conclude that, in other fields of study, the phrase “learning area” refers to a particular place from where one can get knowledge or skill.

This definition is not exactly related to the one in question. The dictionaries define it as a place, and the *Revised National Curriculum Statements* refer to it as a particular field of study in education. In this regard, it is a technical term.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu* have translated this technical term with another technical term and have also given a description of the other part of the phrase. They also transliterated some learning areas and gave a description of other learning areas as a translation of the text in the SL. The style that has been used is both professional and popular. This is exemplified in the following:

- (89) (a) SL: Learning areas (2002:2).
 TL: *Zwitatamennde zwa sia la u guda* (2002:2).

- (b) SL: Mathematics (2002:2).
TL: *Metse* (2002:2).
- (c) SL: Natural sciences (2002:12).
TL: *Saintsi dza mupo* (2002:2).
- (d) SL: Social sciences (2002:2).
TL: *Saintsi dza zwa matshiliso* (2002:2).
- (e) SL: Arts and Culture (2002:2).
TL: *Vhutsila na Mvelele* (2002:2).
- (f) SL: Life orientation (2002:2).
TL: *Pfunzo dza zwa vhutshilo* (2002:2).
- (g) SL: Economic Management Sciences (2002:2).
TL: *Saintsi dza zwa Ekonomi na Ndangulo* (2002:2).
- (h) SL: Technology (2002:2).
TL: *Thekinolodzhi* (2002:2).

(Revised National Curriculum Statements Grades R-9 (2002) and the Tshitatamende tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9 (2002).

In examples (89b, c, d, e, & f), the technical term “science” has been transliterated, this has also been done in the term “economy” in example (89e). As a result, one technical term has been translated with another technical term. This is because there is lack of equivalent terms in the TL to translate the technical term “science”. This term is found in the field of education.

Therefore, the style that has been used is a professional style. However, the target language speakers who do not know the language used in the source text may not be able to understand the translation that is in the TL text.

On the other hand, in example (89a), translators have succeeded in translating the information contained in the SL text. The term *Zwitatamennde* is a technical term used to refer to a document that is the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (Schools). However, this term is used in the education field as a technical term to refer to this document. But, in other fields of study, the term “statement” is referred to as information in a formal way (*Collins South African School Dictionary*, 2002:824). The translation in this example gives rise to a shift of meaning.

In examples (89e & f), translators have translated the source text by giving a description in a popular style. In this regard, the TL speakers could be able to achieve communicative equivalence.

However, in examples (89a, b, c, d & g) above, TL speakers who do not understand the language could find it impossible to achieve communicative equivalence. The style that has been used is a professional style because technical words have been retained in the phrase. As a result, this could be problematic to the TL speakers.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* could have used the popular style of language to translate the SL text as in the following examples:

- (90) (a) SL: Learning area statements.
TL: *Masia a ndivho a u guda.*
- (b) SL: Mathematics.
TL: *Mbalo.*
- (c) SL: Natural sciences.
TL: *Ngudo dza vhukuma dza mupo.*
- (d) SL: Social sciences.
TL: *Ngudo dza matshilisano.*
- (e) SL: Economic Management Sciences.
TL: *Ngudo dza Ndango ya Masheleni Vhubvedzisi na Vhubindudzi.*

- (f) SL: Technology.
 TL: *Ngudo dza ndivho ya zwa khasho na vhudavhidzani sa ha khomphutha, lutingo thendeleki, radio na midagasi.*

In these examples (91a-f) above, a popular style of language has been used to translate the technical terms used in the SL. Therefore, communicative equivalence can be achieved between the SL text and the TL speakers.

4.6.3 Learning outcomes

The *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002:135) defines “outcomes” as the results at the end of the learning process in Outcomes-Based Education. This is a technical term used in the field of education. This term has been formulated by educationalists to refer to a process of shaping the learning process. In other fields of study, they use results, as in the field of medicine. They perform a procedure and expect results. In science, they perform experiments and expect results also. The term “outcomes” is a technical term in the sense that it is a new word which came up with the new Curriculum. The style that translators used in translating this term is a popular style because popular language has been used to translate this technical term. However, in the learning outcomes stipulated in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R - 9* (2002) and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002), translators used both the professional and the popular styles of language as in the following examples:

- (91) (a) SL: Listening (2002:11).
 TL: *U thetshelisa* (2002:13).
- (b) SL: Speaking (2002:11).
 TL: *U amba* (2002:13).
- (c) SL: Writing (2002:11).
 TL: *U nwala* (2002:13).
- (d) SL: Reading and viewing (2002:13).
 TL: *U vhalala na u sedzulusa* (2002:14).

- (e) SL: Thinking and reasoning (2002:13).
 TL: *U humbula na u nea muhumbulo* (2002:14).
- (f) SL: Language Structure and use (2002:13).
 TL: *Tshivhumbeo tsha luambo na kushumiselwe* (2002:14).

These learning outcomes in examples (92a-f) above are technical terms. For instance, the term “listening” in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002:58) involves the ability to listen for information and enjoyment, and to respond appropriately and critically in a wide range of situations. However, the dictionary defines the term “listening” as hearing something or paying attention to it (*Collins South African School Dictionary*, 2002:497). This definition, from the dictionary, is more general, whereas, on the other hand, the definition in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002) is more specific, and directs its activities to the education field. It is also more professional. Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) were able to get an equivalent technical term to translate the technical in the SL text whereby communicative equivalence was achieved.

The term “speaking” in example (92b) is also a technical term in the sense that, in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002:56), it refers to being able to communicate confidently and effectively in spoken language in a wide situation. On the other hand, the dictionary defines the term “speaking” as using your voice to say words. One can use his/her voice anywhere to say words. However, the definition in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002) also qualifies the activity of speaking. In this regard, it is specifically directing the term to the field of education. Hence it is a technical term.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) succeeded in finding an equivalent term to translate this technical term: **speaking** (See example 92b).

The phrase *Reading and Viewing*, in example (92d) above, is a technical phrase because it is defined in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement* (2002:5) as the ability to read and view for information and enjoyment, and respond crucially to the aesthetic, cultural and emotional values in texts. On the other hand, the dictionary defines the term “reading” as looking at something written and saying it aloud, and the term “viewing” is defined as

something you can see from a particular place (*Collins South African School Dictionary*, 2002:949).

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) succeeded in translating this technical phrase into the target language. They used a professional style in the sense that they were able to get equivalent terms for the phrase.

The phrase in example (92e) above is also a technical phrase because of its definition in the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002:57), which indicates that this learning outcome is achieved when a learner is able to use language to think and reason, as well as to access, process and use information for learning. This definition confirms that this is a technical term used in the education profession.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) did not exactly translate the information that is contained in the SL text. The last part of the phrase has been incorrectly translated as follows:

- (92) SL: Reasoning.
TL: *U nea muhumbulo.*

The two texts are not equivalent. The text in the TL refers to giving an opinion, which is not what the SL text is referring to. The text ought to have been translated as:

- (93) SL: Thinking and reasoning.
TL: *U humbula na u elekanya.*

In this way, the TL speakers could have been provided with the same information contained in the SL text. Translators used the popular style of language to translate the technical phrase in the SL text. This is because there is lack of equivalent terms in the TL.

In *Learning Outcome Number Six* which is also a technical phrase, translators succeeded in finding the equivalent terms to translate the SL text. Communicative equivalence has been achieved. The style used is a professional style of language.

4.6.4 Assessment standards

The *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002:134) defines assessment standards as the knowledge, skills and values that learners need to show to achieve the Learning Outcomes in each grade. This definition confirms the fact that assessment standards are a technical phrase in the profession of education. These assessment standards that need to be achieved by learners are categorised according to each statement. Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) have translated this phrase literal as the following:

- (94) SL: Assessment Standards.
TL: *Maimo a asesimennde.*

The translation above does not exactly contain the information in the SL text. The term *maimo* in the TL text refers to a position. From the definition above, one could conclude that translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) did not exactly succeed in providing the communicative equivalence as far as the above phrase is concerned. These translators could have translated the phrase as follows:

- (95) SL: Assessment standards.
TL: *Tshikalo tsha ndivho.*

In this way, the TL speakers could have been provided with communicative equivalence. The style that has been used in example (95) above is a popular style of language. However, it resulted in the distortion of the information in the SL text.

Assessment standards in various grades encompass skills, knowledge and values such as:

- (96) (a) SL: Punctuations (2002:43).
TL: *Ndongazwiga* (2002:59).
- (b) SL: Builds word bank (2002:43).
TL: *Fhata banga ya maipfi* (2002:49).

- (c) SL: Processes information (2002:43).
TL: *Ita mafhungo* (2002:49)
- (d) SL: Build vocabulary (2002:43).
TL: *Fhata divhaipfi* (2002:59).
- (e) SL: Publishes (2002:43).
TL: *Kandisa* (2002:49).
- (f) SL: Revises (2002:43).
TL: *Ndovhololo* (2002:47).
- (g) SL: Phonic awareness (2002:37).
TL: *Limuwa mubvumo* (2002:41).
- (h) SL: Meta language (2002:53).
TL: *Luambo* (2002:61).

These examples in (96a-h) above, are assessment standards, in the sense that they are skills that learners need to show to achieve a particular learning outcome. In this regard, these skills can be acquired at a formal institution such as a school. Therefore, these are technical terms meant for educational field.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) have used a popular style of language to translate these terms because of zero equivalence in the TL. However, they did succeed in other terms to provide communicative equivalence, but in some, the communicative equivalence could not be guaranteed in all TL speakers. For instance, in examples (96b & e) above, the TL speakers or the users of the document may not be able to understand the text. Translators could have used the term *dulu* instead of borrowing the term *bank*. The phrase could have been translated as:

- (97) SL: Builds word bank.
TL: *Fhata dulu la maipfi*.

In this way, the TL speakers who do not understand English would have been provided with an equivalent term that they would understand.

In example (96e) above, the term publishes has been translated ambiguously in the sense that it can be interpreted in more than one way. The TL speaker or user may interpret the term as referring to a stamp. The translators could have used the term *andadza* which is equivalent in meaning with the term publishes. The term could have been translated as:

- (98) SL: Publishes.
TL: *Andadza*.

In example (98h) above, the term Meta language is a technical term that refers to a language used to talk about language and includes terminology such as sound, word, sentence, text, and context. On the other hand, the dictionary defines Meta language as a form of language used to discuss language (*Revised National Curriculum Statements Grades R-9 (2002:139)*). Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9 (2002)* translated this term with a description. They used popular style of language in order to provide the TL speakers with the communicative equivalence.

In examples (96a, d, f, & g) above, translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9 (2002)* created new terms based on the functionality of the term in the SL. As a result, they succeeded in providing communicative equivalence. The style that they used is a professional style because the terms could easily be analysed and understood by professionals in the education field.

4.6.5 Recommended texts

The *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (2002:142)* defines the term “text” as any written, spoken or visual form of communication involving the purposeful use of language. The dictionary, on the other hand, defines the term “text” as any written material (*Collins South African School Dictionary, 2002:879*). The term “text” is a technical term in the education profession because it is characterized by its purpose in the use of language. It encompasses oral, visual and multimedia aspects. In other fields of study, the term “text” can refer to the main theme or a book. For instance, in Christianity, they refer to it as “a topic”.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluwaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) have given a description in the translation of these aspects and also transliterated some terms, as in the following examples:

- (99) (a) SL: Recommended texts (2002:23).
TL: *Manwalwa o themendelwaho* (2002:25).
- (b) SL: Oral (2002:23).
TL: *Orala* (2002:23).
- (c) SL: Written visual (2002:23).
TL: *Zwi vhonehalaho/nwalwaho* (2002: 25).
- (d) SL: Multimedia (2002:23)
TL: *Midia nnzhi* (2002:25)

These examples in the SL text are technical terms. For instance, the term “oral text” encompasses every activity done orally, such as narratives; descriptions; dialogues and conversations; songs; poems; games, riddles and jokes; and radio broadcasts. Written/visual texts include aspects such as fiction and non-fiction books, newspapers, reference books, simple book review, pamphlets, advertisements, diaries, comics, photographs and graphs. Multimedia texts encompass aspects such as televisions, videos, children’s films and films.

The style of language that the translators have used is a popular style. They used popular language because they were confronted with zero equivalence in some of these terms. However, in example (99d) above, the TL speakers could have a problem of understanding the text. In other words, it could be problematic to achieve communicative equivalence. The *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 English-Home Language* (2002:139) defines the term “multimedia” as an integrated range of modes that could include text, visual, material, sound and video.

The term *Midiannzhi* in the translation in example (99d) has been created and translated literally. Users of this document may not be able to understand the meaning of the term. Moreover, it does not even appear in the Languages Learning Area Glossary of the

Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9 Tshivenda Luambo Iwa Hayani (2002) as it is the case with the source text.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) could have translated the term and also provided an explanation as follows:

(100) SL: Multimedia.

TL: *Midia nnzhi, dzi angaredzaho manwalwa, zwine zwa tou vhonwa sa thelevisheni, zwa miungo sa khasho, na dzivideo.*

In this way, the TL speakers and the users of the document could have been provided with communicative equivalence.

4.6.6 Phases

The new curriculum, as indicated in Chapter One of this work, is divided according to phases. There are three phases in the General Education and Training GET Band. These are:

- Foundation Phase;
- Intermediate Phase; and
- Senior Phase.

These phases are from Grade R to Grade 9 (*Revised National Curriculum Statement*, 2002:2). These phases are technical terms in the sense that they are only used in the education profession to refer to particular levels of age groups as of school learners in Grades R-9.

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) have translated these technical terms using a popular style of language. They used popular terms in order to provide the users and the TL speakers with the information contained in the SL text. This is exemplified in the following:

(101) (a) SL: Foundation Phase (2002:9).

TL: *Vhuimo ha fhasi* (2002:3).

(b) SL: Intermediate Phase (2002:55).

TL: *Vhuimo ha vhukati* (2002:63).

- (c) SL: Senior Phase (2002:91).
TL: *Vhuimo ha ntha* (2002:109).

Translators of the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002) have translated these terms without giving an explanation of these terms, especially the phases. The term *Vhuimo* and the term *phase* are not exactly equivalent. Instead of using the term *vhuimo* to translate the term *phase*, they could have used the term *murole*. The term “foundation” in example (101a) and the term *fhasi* in the TL are not exactly equivalent. The term *fhasi* in this context could refer to:

- a lower position;
- down, or
- an inferior position.

As a result, this can result in confusing the TL speakers because the translation is ambiguous. The terms could have been translated as follows:

- (102) (a) SL: Foundation Phase.
TL: *Murole wa mutheo*.
- (b) SL: Intermediate Phase.
TL: *Murole wa vhukati*.
- (c) SL: Senior Phase.
TL: *Murole wa ntha*.

In this way, the TL speakers could be able to achieve communicative equivalence.

4.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter examined the role of equivalence in technical translation. The term “technical” in translation was defined. Three levels of technical translations were outlined, these were, namely: academic, professional, and popular styles. Descriptive and technical translations were discussed, and technical translation was also analysed to examine equivalence in their

translation in the TL. The final analysis of this chapter focused on the technical-specific concepts.

Based on the above analysis, the current researcher found out that technical terms are problematic when translating into the TL. The substitution of technical terms by new words also cannot assist the TL audience to achieve communicative equivalence. However, technical terms could be understood if a brief explanation has been provided.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is aimed at giving the conclusion of the study. This will be done and finalised by giving findings and recommendations.

5.1 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Chapter One serves as an introduction to the study. Background to the problem, aim and significance of the study, rationale, methodology, data collection strategies, delimitation of the study and literature review have been provided. Scholars, such as Fromkin and Rodman (1988), Holmes (1970), Kelly (1979), Munday, (2001), Newmark (1995), Lefevere (1992), and Robinson (2002), have been consulted.

Chapter Two deals with translation equivalence. Types of translation equivalence that have been examined are, namely: dynamic, formal, denotative, connotative, textual and zero equivalence. Translation procedures, adaptations, shifts and terminology strategy have been tackled.

Chapter Three focuses on translation methods such as word-for-word; idiomatic, adaptation and communicative.

Chapter Four deals with technical translation. The term “technical translation” is defined. Styles such as academic, professional and popular are discussed. The middle part of this chapter deals with the analysis of technical translation. Technical- specific concepts were examined. Concepts such as assessment, learning outcomes, learning areas, assessment standards, recommended texts and phases were analysed.

5.2 FINDINGS

The findings of the study are the following:

- Literal translation of the source text is problematic and should be avoided because it distorts the information and the meaning of the text in the SL;

- Communicative method is the most suitable method of translation, in the sense that it takes into consideration the culture of the target group or audience;
- Complete equivalence between languages is sometimes impossible due to lack of an equivalent item in the TL. That is because of zero equivalence;
- The creation of new terminology should be geared at bridging the gaps of zero equivalence;
- Translating one technical term with another technical term has its flaws, because terms are transliterated instead of being translated into the TL; as a result, there is often a shift of meaning; and
- Lack of equivalent terms in the translation of technical terms should be solved by giving a brief explanation of the source text or by providing a descriptive term in the TL.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

- The issue of text and context should be taken into consideration when translating text;
- Translators should make an analysis of the readership. For instance, the *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9* (2002) is meant for the learned. Therefore, the text should be up to their standard or level of understanding;
- Competent translators should be the ones given the task of translating documents, and there should be thorough editing of the work translated;
- There should be technical dictionaries in various fields such as education, medicine, law, and science;
- Every document translated should be supplemented with a glossary of difficult concepts.

5.4 FURTHER STUDIES

The study has covered translation equivalence, translation methods, and technical translation in the *Revised National Curriculum Statements* and the *Tshitatamennde tsho Sedzuluswaho tsha Kharikhulamu Gireidi R-9* (2002). The following areas have not yet been examined:

- Types of translation, such as interlingual, intralingual, and intersemiotic;
- Text styles, such as narrative, description, discussion, and dialogue;
- The quality of writing; and
- The intensions of the texts and of the translator.

These give room for more research in the future.

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